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ABSTRACT

This collection of essays presents a rationale for incorporating teaching about Japan in the K-12 curriculum. The volume provides practical examples and guidelines about how to achieve this goal. The essays are organized into three main categories--professional development, curriculum design and enhancement, and exchange. The essays include: "Rationales for Teaching about Japan: Some Reflections" (D. Grossman); "Internationalizing the Social Studies Teacher Education Program: Japan as a Case Study" (P. Weiss); "In-Service Workshops" (R. Martin); "Summer Institutes in the United States" (K. Woods Masalski; L. Wojtan); "Anatomy of a Curriculum Development Project" (G. Mukai); "Creating a Japanese Teaching Resource Center" (Y. Oguzertem; C. Risinger); "Developing Precollegiate Japanese Language Programs" (D. Spence); "Effective Study Tours: Predeparture, On-Site, and Follow-through Activities" (L. Parisi; D. Christian); "Exchange: Bringing People and Ideas Together" (J. Cogan); "Contemporary U.S.-Japan Business Relations: Issues and Networking" (D. Barry; L. Ellington); and "Dwelling in the Experience of Others: Intercultural Collaboration in Action, Japanese Dimensions" (B. Finkelstein). An annotated bibliography of approximately 80 items also is included, as well as lists of organizations numbering 13 educational exchange organizations and 14 members of the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network. (DB)

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Internationalizing the U.S. Classroom: Japan as a Model

SO 022 197

Linda S. Wojtan and
Donald Spence, Editors

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National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network

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Linda S. Wojtan is Co-coordinator of the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network. She has conducted numerous workshops and has written extensively about teaching Japan at the K-12 grade levels.

Foreword

This publication is the result of a fruitful partnership between the ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education (ERIC/ChESS) and the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network. This partnership was forged by Linda S. Wojtan, Donald Spence, and C. Frederick Risinger. Wojtan and Spence serve as Co-coordinators of the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network. Risinger is the Associate Director of ERIC/ChESS and Director of the National Clearinghouse for U.S.-Japan Studies, which also is an Adjunct ERIC Clearinghouse.

Wojtan, Spence, and Risinger wanted to develop this publication to influence social studies educators to internationalize the curricula of schools. And they wanted to provide practical examples and guidelines about how to do it. This publication succeeds in presenting compelling reasons for internationalizing the social studies classroom. It also includes valuable cases of effective curriculum development and instructional strategies. Thus, this volume will be useful to educational policymakers and administrators, curriculum specialists, and classroom teachers.

John J. Patrick
Director, ERIC Clearinghouse for
Social Studies/Social Science
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Studies Development Center of
Indiana University

Preface

Many of the goals of K-12 curricula in the United States can be achieved through the study of other cultures and other peoples. The study of other cultures is variously referred to as area studies (e.g., Asian Studies, African Studies, Latin American Studies), cross-cultural education, international education, global education, and others. Persistent problems in K-12 studies of other cultures include a lack of available resource materials to support teaching, too few teachers with a knowledge of and experience in a second culture, and too little research in cross-cultural program development and teacher education.

In the early 1980s, the United States-Japan Foundation began funding a series of regional centers to facilitate teaching about Japan in the K-12 curriculum. Over the past decade, regional centers have been established in every major geographic division of the country. The focus of each of these centers has been varied, but the major thrust of each has been to address one or several of the persistent problems listed above. In addition to functioning as resource distribution centers, they have provided teacher education both in the U.S. and in Japan, served as centers for materials and program development, facilitated networking opportunities in the U.S. and Japan, and are currently exploring cross-cultural leadership development and precollegiate Japanese language training.

Personnel from the various resource centers began to meet informally at professional meetings, such as the National Council for the Social Studies. Those informal meetings provided a valuable opportunity for sharing lessons learned and for identifying future goals for collaborative efforts. It became obvious quickly that many of the lessons learned could be generalized to apply to the study of any culture. Two major goals that emerged from the informal sessions were to institutionalize the meetings and to document the best of what had been learned from the efforts of the past ten years. The group became the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network. The Network spent two years refining our "lessons learned", which we believe have significant implications for enriching any culture study program. This book is the result of those efforts.

We are indebted to the personnel of the various regional centers who have worked tirelessly at enriching Japanese studies in their areas and have summarized much of their work here. We are particularly indebted to the United States-Japan Foundation for its support of these projects and for its commitment to strengthening cross-cultural understanding through such projects. This book was made possible, in part, through generous funding from the United States-Japan Foundation. We especially would like to thank Dr. Ronald Aqua, Vice President of the Foundation, for his continuing guidance and assistance.

We would like to acknowledge the contributions of the ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education staff in the production of this book. In particular, we are grateful to Dr. John J. Patrick for this thoughtful advice and expert direction, to C. Frederick Risinger for his helpful review of the manuscript, and to Vickie J. Schlene for her careful editing.

We dedicate this work to the development of understanding between and among all of us, to the teachers who work daily helping students to understand, and to the students they teach who must make sense of the world.

LSW and DS

Introduction

Rationales for Teaching about Japan: Some Reflections

David L. Grossman

While serving as President of the California School Board in the early 1980's, Michael Kirst witnessed dramatic changes in the state's educational agenda. With remarkable candor, he outlines these cycles of United States educational reform in an insightful essay:

> Shaken by reports that Japanese children were doing much better than American children, the California State Board of Education in the early 1980s suddenly changed its agenda. We cut short our formerly intensive discussions of high school dropouts, disadvantaged minorities, and the lower third of the achievement band to focus on the alleged crisis of decline in academic standards. . .The metaphor of educational policy as a bandwagon in search of recurrent crises seems apt (Kirst 1984).

According to Kirst, "Toyota" or "Japan Incorporated" had become the "Sputnik" of the 1980s. The impact of Japanese competition was already being reflected in the U.S. history textbooks of the same period, where the final chapter of several major textbooks dealt with the growing economic power of Japan and its potential threat to the U.S. It is this context of economic competition that frames most national and state policy statements with regard to improving international/global education in the United States.

The foreword of the Report of the Task Force on International Education of the National Governors' Association reports:

> International Education - teaching and learning about other countries, their citizens, and their languages. Just how important is it to our country? As important as economic prosperity, national security, and world stability. More than ever before, our economic well-being is intertwined with that of other countries through expanding international trade, financial markets, and investments. More than ever before, our national security - indeed, world stability as a whole - depends upon our understanding of and communication with other countries ("America in Transition: The International Frontier" 1989).

Rationales and Motivations

In the course of preparing a book on teaching issues related to the Asia/Pacific region, Don Wilson, Kerry Kennedy, and I examined rationales for teaching about Asia and the Pacific in selected countries of the region (Wilson, Kennedy, and Grossman 1990). One of the most interesting findings of this exercise was that the rationales for teaching about Asia and the Pacific in the western and developed nations, namely the United States, Canada, and Australia, were so alike as to be virtually indistinguishable. The national policy statements were so similar that we chose to include only the Canadian one in the book, but we could have substituted the U.S. or Australian version with little or no difference in effect.

The single most important motivation behind the movement toward policies increasing Asia and Pacific education in the U.S., Canada, and Australia was described in terms of serving the nation's self-interest. In fact, the rationale for this new emphasis was the notion of increasing the country's economic competitiveness in the world, particularly toward its Asian neighbors. (Some might be tempted to call this approach "selfishness," not self-interest.) If there was one common thread, it was that teaching about Asia and the Pacific was seen as contributing to the national agenda of producing a competent citizenry for the 21st century. Underlying this notion of a competent citizenry was the need to be competitive in a global economic system with a new set of powerful players in the Pacific region, principally Japan.

It is on this note of economic competition that most national rationales for improving international education in the 1980s have rested. This rationale is based on perceived self-interest. We must sustain informed connections in order to survive in a competitive global system, if not to prosper and maintain our way of life.

Rationales based on economic self-interest result in a kind of paradox for the goal of improving teaching about Japan. It is becoming increasingly clear that in order to become widespread in classrooms, teaching about Japan has to be related to the larger issues of curricular development and reform policies in any given educational jurisdiction. Similarly, it is perhaps fair to conclude that if the study of Japan is not seen as an integral part of the national, state, or district agenda, we are not likely to find curricula which reflect the new international realities of the Pacific era. But, if in order to get on the national, state, or district agenda, the rationale has to be based on Japan as a potential economic threat, what kind of international education are we promoting?

The motivation with which educators approach international education has significant impact on its content and methodology. Underlying the national rationales of teaching about Asia in Australia, Canada, and the U.S., is a perceived need to be competitive in a global economic system. This national self-interest approach contains several important problems inherent within it. First, a rationale based on economic competitiveness necessarily builds in a "we/they" distinction which is unlikely to lead to a true global perspective. Secondly, might not such an approach intellectually limit curricular input on Asia to those topics of immediate economic or vocational relevance? Finally, a rationale built on current self-interest is subject to the whims of national and international events—witness the long-term decline of Russian language and culture studies after the initial boost in the post-Sputnik era. Are there any meaningful alternatives to the limitations of a rationale based on economic self-interest in the context of an increasingly competitive global economic system?

Rose Lee Hayden, formerly Director of the National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies, has suggested that other than self-interest, there are at least four other possible patterns of motivation for increasing international/global education in U.S. classrooms (Hayden 1979). An examination of these generic approaches to teaching internationally oriented subjects along with their potential for providing a rationale for teaching about Japan follows.

One alternative pattern of motivation can be called the humanitarian approach. It tends to follow the reasoning that if the "haves" of the world do not share, they will have little claim to self-decency in a desperate and starving world. This approach is commonly associated with North/South issues and development education, and, as such, is rarely applied as a rationale for teaching about Japan.

Another approach might be called global survival. Behind this lies the notion that we need all the shared brain power we can get if we hope to ameliorate the seemingly intractable problems all mankind faces: energy, population, pollution, urban sprawl, disease, discrimination, injustice, hunger, war, political repression, just to mention a few. Being an "issue-based" mode, this is rarely used as a major motivation for teaching specifically about Japan. However, since Japan shares with the U.S. many of the problems common to modern industrialized societies, it is sometimes portrayed as offering alternative modes of dealing with similar problems, such as mass transit. However, in this context, Japan is sometimes cited as a negative example, particularly on ecological issues such as whaling and pollution.

Another pattern is one which might be labeled as cultural or spiritual enrichment. This approach maintains that without an education that opens minds and cultivates a taste for the diversity of cultural expressions in the world, the U.S. may face a kind of aesthetic starvation. Certainly this could provide a rationale for teaching about Japan's rich cultural heritage. A significant percentage of teachers who teach about Japan do so for reasons based on this cultural heritage, and this notion will be expanded later.

A final pattern of motivation might be called the democratic citizenship approach. Here citizen competence is linked not so much to economic competitiveness, but rather to the full exercise of citizen responsibilities in a democratic system. In other words, the goal of this approach is to produce citizens capable of interpreting and responding to global challenges and opportunities. Otherwise the U.S. faces the dangers of widespread apathy and parochial neo-isolationism at the very least, and self-destruction in the worst case. Given the mutual interests that link the U.S. and Japan, this approach can easily be linked to increasing the study of Japan in our schools. That is, if our students are to be competent citizens in the world of the 21st century, they must have a basic understanding of what former U.S. Ambassador to Japan Mike Mansfield called the "most important bilateral relationship in the world, bar none!"

In this mix of rationales, there is perhaps no single best answer to the question of providing a rationale for the teaching of Japan in U.S. schools. These rationales are not mutually exclusive and in fact, appear in various combinations in educational policy statements. In a recent study of 30 U.S. global education projects at the secondary level, Merryfield (1990) found that in terms of conceptualization these programs as a whole were strongest in the teaching of human values and cultures. At the same time most of these programs reported a notable lack of political support from those who control their respective educational systems or institutions. It is reasonable to conclude that strength in teaching human values and cultures is not perceived of prime importance in the current round of educational reform which seems to emphasize economic self-interest over humanitarian, global survival, cultural enrichment, or democratic citizenship goals.

At the same time, it remains important to remember that in an educational system as decentralized as that of the U.S., it is not simply national, state, or even district policy statements which ultimately determine what is taught. Individual classroom teachers still exercise considerable influence over what is included or excluded from the curriculum. If teachers currently teaching about Japan were asked why they chose to do so, most would offer rationales in which the importance of teaching Japanese values and cultures would rank higher than economic self-interest. Many would cite an instance of personal contact with the culture of Japan, either through travel, reading, and/or in-service workshops as significant motivational factors. One study of global education among elementary teachers in Missouri found that the problem was not so much one of getting teachers to endorse the need for global education, as it was their lack of academic preparation for the task, their feelings of being pressured by competing demands on classroom time, and the minimum opportunities they had had to experience other cultures (Wright and Van Decar 1990). At the level of the individual classroom teacher, it may be that official policy statements about the importance of international education have little value, especially if they are devoid of serious implementation which offers teachers opportunities for wider exposure to the cultures they are supposed to teach. How can teachers be expected to know something, much less do something, about teaching Japan with so little instruction at either the preservice or in-service levels?

It is critical to consider carefully what conceptual framework is used to teach about a region as vast and diverse as Asia and the Pacific, or even a single country like Japan. In the context of our broader educational goals where does the study of Japan fit? It is incumbent upon teachers and administrators to identify the significant themes, concepts, or issues that will help students build a framework for analysis that includes a reflective understanding of their own national perspective or perspectives.

It is this very notion of perspectives, or perhaps more correctly stated, "multiple perspectives," which is sadly lacking in the rationales for teaching Asia and the Pacific examined. Multiple perspective-taking can be defined as the ability and willingness to consider issues from the viewpoints of people whose cultures or value orientations are different from our own. This lies at the core of the kind of education which is called for in the Prologue to *The Carnegie Report on Education* (1986):

> The world has become a more crowded, more inter-connected, more volatile, and more unstable place. If education cannot help students see beyond themselves and better understand the interdependent nature of our world, each new generation will remain ignorant, and its capacity to live confidently and responsibly will be dangerously diminished.

To paraphrase the above, if the study of Japan helps our students see beyond themselves and better understand the interdependent nature of our world, it is not just education about Japan, it is simply good education.

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Internationalizing the Social Studies Teacher Education Program: Japan as a Case Study

Patricia E. Weiss

with contributions from:
Stephen Rose, University of Wisconsin-Oshkosh
and James Dick, University of Nebraska-Omaha

The decade of the 1980's will be remembered for the proliferation of educational reform literature. This literature called for changes in schooling in order to prepare students for the global challenges of the 21st century. These reports warned that America's educational failures, if not corrected immediately, would result in a nation that was "at risk" of losing its competitive edge against overseas competitors. Educators were taken to task for not doing an adequate job of preparing students with the knowledge and skills to compete effectively in the international marketplace. Schools of education were cited for failing to equip future teachers with the ability to internationalize the learning experience in the classroom.

To assist schools of education seeking change, this chapter offers a rationale for internationalizing the preservice education curriculum using Japan as a case study. Next, practical suggestions and innovative programs designed to infuse Japan-related topics and coursework into the middle/secondary level social studies preservice teacher certification curriculum will be explored. Finally, a brief discussion of the need to internationalize the K-12 preservice curriculum in order to extend Japan-focused curriculum development efforts beyond the social studies, where Japan is primarily taught, will be presented.

The Need to Internationalize Preservice Training

Recent research on the level of international knowledge of teachers indicates there are tremendous deficiencies in areas that pose significant barriers to implementing global education in the schools. The American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education estimated that only five percent of the nation's elementary and secondary teachers had any academic preparation in international topics or issues. At the preservice level, education majors were even less prepared in international content than other college majors (Merryfield 1990).

A national study of teacher education programs found little evidence that supported substantial coordination and integration across general and professional studies (Edmundson 1990). Edmundson noted that a major problem in educating teachers is the disconnected nature of programs. She added that the disjuncture between general and professional studies tells students that general studies are unrelated to their preparation for teaching, and that the content they teach can be separated from considerations about how they will teach.

A study of thirty teacher education programs across the nation (Merryfield 1990) observed that preservice teachers were not being prepared to teach U.S. or world history with a global perspective. Similarly, preservice teachers were not being sensitized to the roles of governmental organizations, multi-national corporations, and non-governmental actors in their teacher preparation programs.

Responding to what is perceived as a national crisis, the National Governors' Association Task Force on International Education urged all states to take initiatives to promote international education as part of the basic education for all students. The report stated that teachers, as well as all college and university graduates, must know more about international issues.

A Rationale for Japan Studies in the Preservice Curriculum

While Japan is a frequent topic at the elementary level where students receive information on Japanese institutions and customs, this is not the case at the middle/secondary level. An examination of U.S. secondary level social studies textbooks reveals that the treatment of Japan is limited, often contains errors, and is ethnocentric in the treatment of U.S.-Japan relations (Japan-U.S. Textbook Study 1981). This points to the need for university social studies methods instructors to devise an improved comprehensive teacher preparation program in Japan studies that will enable future middle/secondary social studies teachers to expand the knowledge base of their students through the introduction of more complex concepts and cross-cultural skills (Walstad and Weiss 1991).

It is vital that future middle/secondary level social studies teachers bring students beyond the simple awareness level of Japan that they receive during their elementary preparation. Providing students with a more sophisticated and deeper level of understanding about Japan is a special problem for middle/secondary social studies teachers who lack training in Asian and/or Japan studies. This situation has occurred because most state certification standards for middle/secondary level social studies programs require the bulk of preservice coursework in U.S. history and government. The result has been a generation of social studies teachers trained to teach and use textbooks, including those used in world history courses, who lack an international perspective.

Currently, teacher education universities and colleges are studying ways to implement the recommendations of the 1980's educational reform movements and internationalize their preservice curriculum. In making this decision, many universities have included Japan as a logical case study for students needing to internationalize their perspectives by learning about an eastern culture that is both familiar, but significantly different from western-oriented nations. Second only to the U.S. in economic power, Japan and the United States now share a special bilateral relationship characterized by increasingly linked political, cultural, environmental, and economic systems. As the preeminent nation in the Pacific Rim, it is important that Japan receive an important focus in the training of new teachers. A comprehensive K-12 international studies curriculum that focuses on many nations, including Japan, will enable U.S. high school graduates to be adequately prepared to work in the increasingly interdependent global society of the 21st century.

Using Japan as an area of focus for internationalizing the preservice curriculum has many advantages (Wojtan 1987):

- Japan provides students with an examination of a culture from an eastern perspective.

- As an economic superpower, Japan ranks next to Canada as the most important U.S. trading partner.
- Japan provides an example of a nation that has modernized without excessive westernization.
- The political and educational systems of Japan have been adapted from the United States.
- Japan provides an important multicultural dimension in which cross-cultural perspectives can be explored.

However, understanding a nation as complex as Japan is not easy. Misinformation regarding Japan, whether learned in school through inaccurate textbooks or through the "hidden" or informal curriculum on television and in newspaper/magazine stories, has led many Americans to perceive Japan as a threat rather than an international partner. Because middle/secondary level social studies educators have the major responsibility for helping students understand the world, it is vital that new teachers acquire a better understanding of Japan in order to create an enlightened approach for discussing these cross-cultural issues in their current events lessons.

Guide for Preservice Social Studies Instructors

What follows is a list of suggestions to middle/secondary social studies teacher educators interested in infusing Japan studies into the preservice curriculum. This is not meant to be exhaustive, but instead represents, a list of what steps, programs, activities, and strategies have been useful. This list is based on successful efforts of the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network to provide preservice students with an international perspective using Japan as a case study.

1. Review State Certification Requirements. Each state has a set listing of requirements for certifying social studies majors. It is advisable to work with the state social studies consultant to insure that global education and/or international studies is recognized as an important component of the social studies certification standards. Global education is a comprehensive strategy in which all teachers should receive training on methods and resources for implementation into the total K-12 curriculum. Focusing on Japan makes an excellent case study for the social studies classroom.

2. Review the University Certification Program. It is important to examine the total preparation of future social studies teachers. This means reviewing courses taken by preservice students in the following areas: (1) general education coursework; (2) social studies certification coursework offered in the social science departments; and

(3) school of education coursework. In an effort to help integrate the study of Japan into the total preservice curriculum, the Rocky Mountain Region Japan Project (RMRJP) works closely with teams of university faculty from departments of social sciences in the school of liberal arts and sciences, and the school of education, to develop plans to strengthen the international and cross-cultural training of preservice teachers.

3. Internationalize Coursework in the Social Studies Major. While most social studies majors receive certification in U. S. history and U.S. government, it is important to provide students with coursework in areas outside an American Studies curriculum. The Mid-America Japan in the Schools (MAJIS) Program, for example, works closely with the University of Kansas School of Education social studies teacher certification program. As part of the newly revised comprehensive social studies endorsement at the middle/secondary level, students take coursework in both American and World/Global studies. With careful planning, a social studies major can now enroll in as many as twenty-four hours of Japan-related courses as part of the general education and social science coursework. With these additional courses, new middle/secondary social studies teachers will have a much better content background to prepare lessons that teach about Japan and U.S.-Japan topics.

4. Work with Humanities and Social Sciences Departments. In order to achieve the goal of internationalizing the preservice curriculum, it is often necessary to review the course offerings by departments outside the education school. Social studies instructors can improve the offerings for their majors through meetings with faculty members in the departments that offer Japan-related coursework taken by social studies majors. The MAJIS Program has worked with university faculty in the college of liberal arts and sciences to provide resources and assistance in designing two new courses, "Education in Japan" and "Economic Issues of East Asia." These courses are available to social studies majors as electives in the general education requirement and the comprehensive social studies major.

5. Implement an Early Advising System. It is vital to meet with students as soon as they enter the university to help them plan their total education program. Many universities only see their social studies majors after they complete the first two years of general education coursework. The University of Kansas offers social studies education majors advising in their freshman year. In this way, preservice students can be encouraged to build a concentration of coursework on Japan and Japan-related subjects.

6. Participate in Study Abroad Programs. If preservice students are to become knowledgeable about a nation and culture other than the U.S., it is advisable that they participate in a study abroad program. Social studies advisors should encourage future teachers to participate in a study abroad experience; this opportunity should be built into the international studies curriculum offered to all social studies majors. Almost all major universities have an office where students can seek information on programs that offer opportunities to study abroad. The National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network members have additional listings on programs for college and secondary level students who are interested in a study abroad experience.

7. Utilize Existing Multicultural Education Course. All universities certifying education students must have a multicultural component as part of their education program. This course provides a logical point to teach cross-cultural strategies that preservice students can employ in the classroom to teach about Japan and U.S.-Japan relationships. It is also useful to work with Japanese international students on campus, or Japanese nationals in the community, who can offer education students opportunities to practice cross-cultural techniques that will help them learn about and, more importantly, from the Japanese culture.

Japan as a Case Study in the Social Studies Method Course. *Perspectives on Japan: A Guide for Teachers* offers methods instructors a valuable resource to use with preservice students preparing to teach about Japan. Educators contributing to this publication have developed lessons and identified resources that integrate Japan and U.S.-Japan topics into the social studies to allow students to view Japan with a new perspective. Currently, the MAJIS Program has adopted a special focus on economic-related topics, while the RMRJP is working on a project to provide educators with law-related lessons on Japan and Japan-U.S. topics. Another valuable resource is the East Asian Curriculum Project (EACP) series of curriculum materials on Japan. Special attention should be paid to the unit, *Central Themes for a Unit on Japan*. The themes allow preservice students writing curriculum on Japan to focus their units around the following six ideas:

1. Cultural borrowing/Japanization of foreign ways
2. Social closeness and the primacy of society
3. Relations between the inward and outward economy
4. Inclination toward political and social stability
5. Pursuit of change/preservation of cultural values
6. Japan and the world

Following is a list of strategies, offered by social studies methods instructors participating in the MAJIS Program, to integrate Japan into the middle/secondary social studies methods course. Methods instructors are encouraged to contact National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network members (see listing at the back of the book) for information on local-based opportunities, workshops, and resources that can be integrated into the preservice program.

1. The Global Education Curriculum

For social studies methods instructors, teaching about Japan is most often discussed within the global education curriculum. The field of global education has matured to the point where there is a general consensus about the purposes of global education and what teachers need to know to teach global perspectives. Teachers need knowledge and understanding of cultural universals, cultural diversity, global systems, and their interconnections between countries and individuals. In addition, global issues and a global history that offers a perspective of the evolution of cultures, global systems, and issues are vital for preservice teacher preparation programs.

Instructors interested in revising and augmenting their curriculum might find the following works useful:

- *Schooling and Citizenship in a Global Age: An Exploration of the Meaning and Significance of Global Education*
- *Schooling for a Global Age*
- "The World We're Preparing Our Schoolchildren For"
- "A New Look at an Old Idea: Core Curriculum"
- *An Attainable Global Perspective*
- "Defining a Global Education by Its Content"
- "The Contemporary International System: A World in Transition"

(Full bibliographic information for the above sources can be found in the References list at the end of this chapter.) .

In October 1989, the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) adopted *Social Studies within a Global Education* as one recommended scope and sequence for infusing global perspectives throughout the social studies curriculum. This document synthesized the main ideas that had been developed during the last two decades, and then specified the necessary content to develop global perspectives. It states that the social studies curriculum should reflect the present and historical realities of a global society. To do this, it proposed four essential elements of study in a global education. Social studies methods instructors can find many ways to have their students develop new or review present curricula on Japan and U.S.-Japan topics within each of the four NCSS guidelines listed below. In addition, methods instructors should advise their students to take coursework outside the school of education that will provide preparation in the following areas.

- The Study of Systems - including the economic, political, ecological, and technological systems, which are pervasive in our interdependent world.
- The Study of Human Values - both universal values defining what it means to be human and culture specific values derived from group membership.
- The Study of Persistent Issues and Problems - including peace and security issues, national and international development issues, local and global environmental issues, and human rights issues.
- The Study of Global History - focusing on the evolution of universal and diverse human values and, the historical development of contemporary global systems, and the antecedent conditions and causes of today's global issues.

2. Japan in the Social Studies Textbook

Japan is traditionally taught as part of geography, world history, or during the unit on World War II in U.S. history. Methods instructors can have their students identify the most widely used middle/secondary level social studies textbooks in schools that cooperate with the university's student teacher program. Then, students can evaluate the accuracy of information about Japan. Students should be able to note if material is inaccurate, out-of-date, and be able to identify resources that they can use to supplement the text.

An interesting assignment for preservice students is to have them review the Japan-U.S. Textbook Study. Students learn the important role of the textbook in Japan in determining the social studies curriculum, the dilemmas faced by textbook authors and publishers, and the roles of interest groups in shaping the content of textbooks. Students should be introduced to the role of the Japanese Ministry of Education. Comparisons can be made with the role of individual state and local boards of education in terms of setting education standards and requirements. The following are additional suggested student readings:

- "The Hiroshima Experience: Two Reflections"
- "The Japanese History Textbook Controversy . . . and What We Can Learn From It"
- "The Best Years of Their Lives"
- "How Japan Teaches Its Own History"
- "Japanese Education and Its Implications for U.S. Education"

3. Methods of Teaching about Japan

Teaching about Japan or any other nation requires teachers to select appropriate teaching methods that will allow students to participate in active learning. Rather than listening to a lecture and/or filling out a worksheet (passive learning), students should be involved in activities that employ pedagogical methods that are useful in promoting cross-cultural understanding. Students should develop and teach lesson plans to peers that demonstrate a variety of appropriate strategies such as critical thinking skills in concept development, case studies, issue analysis, conflict resolution, decision-making, experiential learning, exhibits, oral histories, cooperative learning, debates/fora, classroom travel simulations, role playing, field trips, etc. These strategies are outlined in detail in most social studies methods texts.

4. Current Events

It is the responsibility of social studies teachers to bring the world into the classroom so that students understand the complex issues in newspapers and on television. Social studies instructors working with National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network members are teaching their preservice students to analyze and teach U.S.-Japanese international events from a cross-cultural perspective. Methods instructors might consider having their students read selected translated newspaper editorials on a common issue/topic in the *World Press* magazine or the *Japan Times* (in English) newspaper, collect and examine cartoons, or analyze news-clips from television programs. Many areas of the United States receive, via cable television, "Today's Japan", the NHK (Japan Broadcasting Corporation) daily news program from Japan via WGBH in Boston. It is also useful to introduce students to appropriate teaching methods that facilitate the discussion of the many complex value-laden U.S.-Japan issues.

5. Preview Print and Media Resource Materials

Each member of the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network has a library of curriculum materials that social studies methods instructors can utilize in the classroom. Preservice students should be able to preview a variety of resources including print, media, and computer materials. It is also valuable to identify any holdings in the university and area school district libraries to determine if they are ethnocentric, biased, or contain outdated images that do not reflect life in contemporary Japan.

6. Develop Curriculum on Japan

If the methods course is to become a model for training future teachers to internationalize the middle/secondary social studies curriculum, preservice students should be required to develop units and lessons using a nation like Japan as a case study. After the units are checked for content accuracy, students can peer teach, edit for errors, and then save the material for use during student teaching. Methods instructors should consider submitting the best units/lessons to the National Clearinghouse for U.S.-Japan Studies. (See listing in the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network). Below is a partial list of ideas for lesson and unit plans:

a) utilize critical thinking skills in concept development or value-analysis lessons related to Japan and U.S.-Japan issues;

b) develop Japan-related case studies that allow students to participate actively in issue analysis, decision-making, role playing, conflict resolution, or the practice of cross-cultural skills, using cooperative learning;

c) prepare different Japan culture kits that allow students to examine, compare, and draw conclusions about the following: historical artifacts, school life, the home, food, popular culture, daily necessities/economic products and U.S. products sold in Japan;

d) involve students in experiential learning such as study abroad programs and the U.S.-Japan Senate Scholarship Program (administered through Youth For Understanding);

e) interview Japanese exchange students or local students who have participated in Japan exchange programs on their perception of U.S.-Japan cross-cultural issues;

f) develop oral history reports with Japanese and Japanese-American community members;

g) identify community resources on Japan and develop Japanese cultural exhibits in the school/community, or simulate a travel abroad experience to the sister city/state in Japan;

h) hold a U.S.-Japan trade fair highlighting the products traded between the state/region and Japan;

i) conduct class field trips to local Japanese owned businesses or art museums housing Japanese collections; and

j) work with, or help establish a Japan sister city, or sister school relationship.

7. Identify Campus Resources on Japan

Many universities have Centers for International Studies and/or East Asian Studies that can offer a variety of resources. These centers often bring in guest speakers and sponsor programs in which preservice students can participate. Contact the director to get on the mailing list and post notices of important events for preservice students; these lectures and programs are not just for East Asian Studies majors. Visit the centers to collect information on faculty/student study-abroad opportunities, as well as materials and speakers that preservice students can incorporate into their curriculum projects.

8. Japan-Affiliated Community Resources

Often the community has a wealth of untapped resources that preservice students can discover and use during their student teaching experience. Lists of such resources can be obtained from the regional offices of the Consulates General of Japan. These offices have many free print and video materials that teachers can borrow. The Consulates will also provide information on sister city/state committees, the Japanese Chamber of Commerce, or local Japanese-American Citizens Leagues.

9. Other Community/State Resources

Each state has a number of organizations that are affiliated with Japan. Most religious, cultural, and service groups can often provide speakers from Japan and other nations. Lists of Japanese businesses in your state as well as state firms located in Japan can be obtained from your state department of economic development or commerce. Information from these firms can be used in a variety of social studies lessons.

10. Inviting a Guest Speaker/Teacher

There are many teachers who have participated in a variety of Japan study-abroad programs who make excellent guest speakers in the methods class. Lists of these teachers can be obtained from members of the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network. Each of these teachers can provide preservice students with examples of curriculum that they have developed for use with their students. It is a good idea to identify and use these educators as cooperating teachers for preservice students interested in teaching about Japan.

11. Interdisciplinary Units

Teaching preservice students the benefits of interdisciplinary team teaching and cross-curricular planning is a skill that should not be reserved only for the elementary major. An important component of learning involves the synthesis of information from all disciplines. Middle schools often combine language arts with social studies. Preservice social studies teachers need to see the opportunities that can come from introducing students to a whole school project on Japan that involves art, music, literature, math, science, physical education games, and the social sciences. There are many suggestions from experienced teachers who have designed Japan cultural fairs. Contact the National Clearinghouse for U.S.-Japan Studies for information.

Internationalizing the Student Teaching Experience. Because of the importance of the student teaching experience, it is vital that universities consider where and with whom to place social studies preservice students. Teacher training institutions need to be assured that they will be able to place student teachers in districts that have cross-cultural training to facilitate the preservice student who is interested in teaching about Japan. Cooperating teachers should include those who have traveled to Japan or have attended in-service training on Japan and U.S.-Japanese topics. Universities should also consider offering international locations for students interested in teaching abroad. The MAJIS Program has worked with student teachers placed in Department of Defense schools in Japan.

While this chapter has focused on methods of internationalizing the middle/secondary social studies curriculum using Japan as a case study, the overarching goal should include an effort to strengthen the international dimensions of the total K-12 teacher education program. It is vital that the entire school of education work to provide K-12 certification with an international perspective for all preservice students. Faculty interested in seeking funds should begin working with the university grant development office to identify potential funding sources such as the U.S. Office of Education and the Fund for the Improvement of Postsecondary Education. Attempts should be made to exchange faculty and students from overseas universities, including those in Japan. Faculty should be aware of the following opportunities to study in Japan: sister university exchange programs; the Fulbright Faculty Fellowships; the Japan Foundation Study-Tour; and the Keizai Koho Center Fellowships. In addition, members of the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network offer travel/study programs.

Care should be taken to provide an interdisciplinary approach to internationalizing the preservice program. Efforts to internationalize the curriculum using Japan as a case study are taking place in areas such as law-related education, foreign language, international education, science, and agricultural education. Working to help preservice students understand a culture as dynamic and exciting as Japan's will help future citizens as they prepare to meet the challenges of the 21st century.

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2

In-Service Workshops

Roberta Martin

Any session that involves a formal presentation for classroom teachers on content, materials, or model lessons can fall under the category of an "in-service workshop." In our experience, however, the two most effective types of in-service workshops are:

a) **materials review workshop**: devoted exclusively to exposing teachers to the variety of resources that exist for the classroom; and

b) **content workshop**: featuring a topical presentation, preferably by a Japan specialist, followed by discussion of relevant teaching approaches and materials.

Each of these workshops can be extremely useful. Both workshop models will be discussed separately below, with greater detail provided for the content workshop only because it is the more complicated to execute successfully.

Materials Review Workshop

Even in a state where much education on Japan has already taken place, a good review of resources can alert teachers to new or overlooked classroom items that will give an added spark to a unit on Japan. For new teachers, or where education about Japan is new to the curriculum, a review of resources is essential in preventing "reinvention of the wheel."

When? A materials workshop is most appropriate for a short time slot of an hour or two. It therefore fits well as a) an afterschool session, b) a session in a general social studies conference, or c) the concluding period of an all-day content workshop on Japan.

Which Materials? The core of any materials presentation should focus on the large variety of supplementary materials on all aspects of Japanese culture, economy, and history, available from non-profit organizations, such as the Joint Council on Economic Education, Youth for Understanding, and from university centers. Many of the curriculum packets on Japan contain a great mixture of units which only the most experienced teachers may have had a chance to read through; the presenter might choose one or two such units buried in the middle of a 100-page collection—e.g., making a plasticized model of the Japanese islands; producing a kabuki play with fourth graders—and make special reference to them.

New resources appear each year from commercial and non-profit groups, along with new travel and exchange programs, often justifying an annual materials update. Since any such session will include both seasoned teachers and new recruits, however, an "update" should always include review of the core materials, as well as the newly published items. In order to avoid boring teachers who have attended previous sessions, the presenter can choose different lessons to highlight in the standard collections and can encourage discussion of how the same materials have been used in different classrooms.

It is essential that all materials presented be readily accessible published materials that can be ordered by participants as soon as they leave the workshop. Personal lesson materials usually lose their appeal as soon as the enthusiasm of the author is left behind at the workshop.

The Presenter. It is important that the person conducting the workshop be very familiar with the field and able to speak about materials for a variety of levels and contexts. If the presenter is familiar only with the materials used in his or her classroom, then it would be better for the presenter to offer an adaptation of the content or topical workshop, concentrating on something the presenter does well in the classroom—e.g., "How I Teach Japanese Geography at the Fourth Grade Level." Reference to other resources can be included in such a presentation, but the session does not pretend to be a comprehensive review of all that is available for teaching about Japan at the K-12 level.

Content Workshop

At the heart of the content workshop is a presentation by a Japan specialist on a topic or topics that are central to the curriculum on Japan. One aspect of Japan's history, geography, culture, or economic development can be selected as the focus of the workshop or, if time permits, an overview of Japan's history and culture can be presented, highlighting central themes that are important.

When and for How Long? A good content workshop can be done in an hour or over a one- or two-week summer period; the longer the time period, the greater the number of topics or depth possible. The crucial factor is that the several format components listed below be included.

Reasonably, no one should be asked to relocate just for a one hour session, so any meeting less than a three/four hour, half-day workshop should be conducted only as an in-school meeting or as a session of a general social studies conference.

The Format. Whatever the topic(s) chosen, the specialist must keep in mind two questions: 1) what is important for a teacher to know about this topic for his or her own background? and 2) what, in review, are the main points that should be drawn out for the student?

The session should consist of three parts. These can be combined at the discretion of the presenter(s), but will most often be sequential:

1) the content presentation on the topic by a Japan specialist;

2) a review of the key points or issues that must be brought out when covering the topic with students (a useful component even for experienced teachers familiar with the subject matter, providing them with new ways of organizing and presenting the material);

3) a presentation of one or more classroom curriculum units that can be used to teach about the topic; and

4) (optional) a five-minute sample of a good audio-visual resource related to the topic, when available.

When relevant, presenters should specifically address the tensions in U.S.-Japan relations and ask how, in teaching about the topic under consideration, teachers might take an approach that will promote critical thinking and understanding.

For Whom? A number of issues should be taken into consideration when deciding what audience would be best served by a workshop on Japan. Who teaches about Japan in the state? Is instruction on Japan encouraged in the common state sequence or by mandated requirements: i.e., world history or world cultures at the 9th-10th grade level, world geography or major civilizations at the 6th-7th grade level, communities around the world at the 3rd grade level, or at all grade levels through an "infusion approach"? If it is, then the potential audience for a workshop is much larger than it is where Japan is taught only by a devoted and knowledgeable, but relatively quite small, group of converts.

If there is an obvious place for Japan in the curriculum at both the elementary and secondary levels, the choice becomes one of offering different programs for each level or of presenting one program serving both levels. Mixing K-5 teachers with 6-12 teachers usually dilutes the value of the workshop for both groups, because the goals and style of the curriculum is usually quite different at these two levels. Where possible, two different workshops should be offered, or in a full-day workshop on Japan where different sessions can be offered simultaneously, the two groups can be accommodated in parallel programs.

If a content session is to be offered for all teachers grades K-12, then the topic(s) chosen should be relevant to the curriculum at all grade levels: e.g., Japan's geography and its implications; the Japanese language; highpoints of Japanese history; family and group in Japan. Separate materials presentations can then be offered in breakout sessions for the elementary and middle/secondary levels, respectively.

With Whom? How to Attract an Audience. There are as many patterns for teacher workshops as there are states. In some states, it is the state education department itself that periodically sponsors in-service workshops, attracting a substantial audience through established channels. In other states it is the councils for social studies, at either the state or local levels, that are most effective in attracting an audience for a full-day session on Japan or a week-long summer program. Coordination with such established channels for in-service programming is crucial if the largest potential audience is to be reached.

Co-sponsors. A compelling argument for the inclusion of co-sponsors is made by Linda Wojtan in "Advice From an Expert: So You Want to Have a Workshop on Japan" (*Forum Newsletter of the United States-Japan Foundation* 1 (Spring 1986.)) The section on co-sponsors is reproduced below.

> If at all possible, include cosponsors and cooperating organizations when arranging your workshop. This should be done as early as possible so that the cooperating agencies are involved in the planning and implementation of the workshop. You might question the wisdom of this strategy. For example, does a uni-

versity-based East Asian outreach program need cosponsors? Won't these cosponsors complicate things? The answer to both questions is "yes," and the reasons behind that answer deserve an explanation.

First, enough cannot be said on behalf of including cosponsors and cooperating institutions. Think of the potential positive spinoff and the economies of scale that can be achieved by combining the cooperative elements. By cooperating with others, you are, in a sense, devolving ownership of the project to them — a key factor if you plan to have your efforts extend beyond the singular workshop and sustain themselves. Also, keep in mind that cooperating groups can provide valuable assistance. Beyond simple monetary contributions, they can provide speakers, use of meeting space and audiovisual equipment, and most importantly, access to their membership. Such access might include use of a mailing list and space in their newsletter for the announcement of your workshop and dissemination of your project materials.

Secondly, yes, cosponsors will complicate matters. The more actors involved, the greater will be your task of constantly cooperating and communicating with all. But it is worth the effort. Without such efforts your well-planned workshop might turn out to be a well-executed one-time effort as opposed to a series of sustained activities enjoying the cooperation and encouragement of a number of groups. Therefore, the success of your workshop depends upon the extent to which you are able to share ownership with other agencies able to maintain your enthusiasm, energy, and effort.

Which Teachers Will Come and When? Organizations with established in-service experience can also provide advice on which teachers will come and when. Do local districts have a policy of releasing teachers from class for a full-day workshop? (As a rule, suburban districts will, but urban districts will not.) If the district will not release teachers for a workshop scheduled on a school day, will teachers attend a Saturday workshop?

How many teachers normally attend summer programs? Is this number a fair representation of the total number of teachers in the state teaching about Japan? If not, is it more advisable to offer a series of one-day workshops during the academic year? Would more teachers be reached in this way, relative to the staff time and money invested in conducting the workshop?

The Cost. The fee charged for the workshop should be adequate to cover the cost of duplication for one or more units for class use, so teachers will have the incentive to carry the topic to the classroom.

Selections from published and tested materials should be duplicated, not incomplete or blurred handouts which lose their allure once the workshop is over.

Evaluation. At the conclusion of the workshop, participants should be asked to complete written evaluation forms, commenting on how useful the workshop was to them. For future planning, it is also helpful to have teachers note on the forms which aspects in teaching about Japan are most difficult for them—e.g., interesting teenagers in the curriculum, adequate time to cover the required material, obtaining current information? Alternative approaches to dealing with these challenges can be presented in subsequent workshops.

Implementation

Noted master teacher Elgin Heinz in *Planning a Teacher Workshop on Japan* (ERIC/ChESS 1980, ED 213 641) provides many useful ideas. A design checklist and implementation checklist have been excerpted from his book. The design checklist should help planners focus on the overall goals and ultimate configuration of the workshop. The implementation checklist comprises a management tool, providing guidance in delegating staff time and project resources:

Design Checklist

- Goals of sponsoring organizations.
- Expectations and possible needs of participants.
- Background of participants, particularly whether they have attended previous workshops and done a particular simulation.
- Striking a balance between experiential and more passive exercises.
- Special features and limitations of setting, particularly if the workshop is held at a museum or special meeting site.
- Inclusion of a variety of audiovisual materials and availability of these aids to teachers.
- Participants' expectations regarding further advice and materials necessary to replicate an exercise in their own classrooms.
- Special talents or features of the organizations sponsoring the workshop—for example, guest speakers, panels of students, or guests from the culture featured.
- The overall flow of the program, leaving time for coffee breaks, discussion and questions, and perusal of any book or artifact display.

- An evaluation element—time and a means for participants to assess the workshop.
- If possible, an introduction to the food of the culture—a lunch or snacks should be provided with an explanation of each dish; list the recommended restaurants in the area.

Implementation Checklist

- Construct a timeline for completing various tasks, always leaving one more week for completion than initially estimated.
- Estimate costs on a preliminary budget, with categories for publicity, rental of space and audiovisual equipment, printing, and honoraria for guest speakers.
- Make an equipment and supplies list, including spare projector bulbs and batteries.
- Keep a record of all correspondence and memos; although guest speakers are best contacted by phone or in person, be sure to confirm in writing what you agree to, from subject matter of presentation to the honorarium.
- Decide in advance upon room arrangements and who will be responsible for setup.
- Make a chart of staff responsibilities, both for the workshop itself and pre-workshop duties; discuss these individually.
- In designing the evaluation form, be sure that it reflects the overall goals of the workshop and gives participants an opportunity to suggest improvements for future workshops.
- Wherever possible, have written materials available which will enable participants to recreate exciting sessions in their own classrooms and will refresh their memories after the workshop has ended. A short annotated bibliography is also helpful in this regard.

A teachers' workshop on Japan can be an extremely effective vehicle for sharing cultural information and enhancing teaching. Careful program design and attention to detail can help ensure that these goals are met.

3

Summer Institutes in the United States

Kathleen Woods Masalski and Linda S. Wojtan

For most educators, the lazy, hazy days of summer afford an opportunity to explore foreign lands, obtain advanced degrees, and attend summer institutes or seminars. An extended summer institute (typically one or two weeks in length) on Japan provides an ideal format for an in-depth cultural exploration. Such an experience, however, requires careful orchestration. This chapter describes the planning, execution, and follow-up necessary to insure a useful experience.

Initially, two considerations require attention—why is the summer institute being held and who is the target audience? It is impossible to suggest which should be answered first because curriculum conditions vary widely across the country and further, the topics relate in a synergistic fashion.

Laying the Groundwork

When determining the purpose of the summer institute, it is important to analyze various motivations. Are you simply trying to create awareness or are you planning to expand the participants' previously-established knowledge base? Along with knowledge, are you interested in encouraging participants to apply in pairs or in a team so that more elaborate and sustained efforts can be achieved? (Note that the team approach with its ramifications for consensus, team building and cooperation, provides an interesting cultural parallel to the society that is being explored). It is important to note too, that participants, once chosen, are treated as individuals with the program even if married couples are chosen. Making this clear from the beginning will save headaches later. More importantly, are resources available to sustain the interest and involvement of the participants after the institute or is information available about other agencies and organizations that are able to provide those resources?

Identifying the target audience presents a set of challenges. Perhaps the best place to start is with an examination of the local curriculum along with state mandates. Are there any specific recommendations in the curriculum for teaching about the topic of your institute? Any logical entry points? After a niche or two is located, it is then a simple matter to focus on the appropriate course or discipline as well as grade level or levels.

The length of the institute on Japan depends in large part on the goals that are set early in the planning stages. Is the institute intended as an in-depth opportunity for teachers to immerse themselves in the intensive study of the culture? Or is it proposed as a quick enrichment course for teachers who need to be updated about Japan? Only a three or four week institute will satisfy the needs of those who desire the former, whereas a "one-weeker" (five to seven days) can provide the necessary jolt for teachers who cannot attend longer sessions. An excellent model for the longer institute has been developed by the National Endowment for the Humanities (NEH) program. A conversation with a former or current project director, or with teachers who have attended more than one of these institutes, will help immeasurably during the planning stages. Also, check with a department of education at a college or university near you, for they often conduct one-week workshops or institutes, and might have helpful advice to offer.

One of the questions to consider is what time of the summer is best for teachers. This is especially important for the longer institutes. In fact, no particular time during the summer seems to satisfy everyone, but the climate of the region helps determine the calendar. Much will depend upon when students are dismissed for summer vacations. Some institutes can be scheduled for mid-June, while others, in New England for instance, are better planned for July. Very few institutes are scheduled to begin in August, regardless of location.

Many directors of short institutes like to catch teachers immediately after they leave the classroom for summer vacation. Since more and more states are requiring that teachers earn annual credit units toward salary increases, some teachers are eager to get those credits on paper as soon as possible. Others prefer to have a little breathing space both after teaching and before going back in the fall. Very few prefer to have a mid- or late-August session just before school begins. One highly-successful institute of seven days' duration, however, was held during several summers over a weekend that spanned July and August.

Although overall funding and budgeting will be examined later, an important initial consideration is—will attendees have to incur a cost? Once such costs, if any, are established, they should appear on all announcements and application materials. Most institutes require some form of cost-sharing on the part of the home institution or individual participants. Options include the cost of transportation to and from the seminar, release time during the year for follow-up visits and presentations to other teachers, and various commitments for curricular change and in-service training.

Conversely, will stipends be offered for participation in the institute? If so, the numbers of those who can participate will increase. A fairly typical rate for stipends seems to be $50.00 a day, $250.00 a week, $1,000.00 for four weeks. These are not huge amounts, but they do make it possible for some teachers to feel less uncomfortable about not finding an additional job for the two months during the summer.

Next, there is the question of selection. Will local school systems, supervisors, or superintendents be asked to nominate or recommend candidates, or will there be a competitive selection procedure? If the latter is chosen, then clear guidelines have to be established and a selection committee has to be constituted and convened.

Advertising the institute is critical. It cannot begin too early! Initial press releases, fliers, and brochures, should go out by the first of the calendar year, especially if the deadline is in early spring. Networking and economies of scale are the hallmarks of this process. While targeted mailing lists and pressure sensitive labels are useful, note the cost of a first class mailing. If a bulk mailing strategy is selected, remember that the cost reduction is offset by a delay in processing the mail. One effective way to disseminate information is to utilize the vehicles of others. Notices in various newsletters, professional journals and school district mailings, while entailing minimal effort and cost, can yield a tremendous response. Keep in mind that contact with private schools in your area will usually require additional networking and channels.

Co-sponsorship

Some consideration should be given to co-sponsorship. If you are on a college campus, will the school of education, the East Asian Studies Center, the continuing education center, the school of business or other departments be involved? Co-sponsorship definitely complicates the planning process, but it should also strengthen the institute. Involving the co-sponsors early in the planning process will insure that they have an opportunity to contribute their expertise and develop a sound working relationship.

Since educators are the target of the institute, perhaps school districts would like to co-sponsor the institute. Additionally, community groups such as the local Japan-America Society or, a Japanese sister city, Japanese cultural or business group might be interested in joining your efforts. Beyond sponsorships, there are issues of true collaboration. Involving co-sponsors through meetings, correspondence, and presentations insures a commitment and a sense of ownership.

In addition, there is an opportunity for networking with other organizations and groups concerned with enhancing the teaching in Japan. Any of the projects in the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network can provide materials as well as the names and addresses of offices that will send quantities of catalogues, resource lists, maps, lessons, newsletters and other useful materials. These materials can be assembled in thick resource packets for all participants or left for individuals to collect during the institute registration.

Some organizations will send display book copies or audio-visual items for preview. A display and preview room is useful for disseminating information about materials. A video tape player and monitor, slide projector, and other equipment should be left in the room so that educators can preview materials during breaks in their schedule. Additionally, some preview time should be included in the schedule, so that teachers can have the benefit of their peers' evaluations of materials.

Attention to Detail

The format of the institute will be determined in large part by its length. In general, those who attend a five-day program will expect the agenda to be packed with activities from start to finish. Spreading the short institute out over seven rather than five days helps to alleviate an overly-burdened schedule, allowing more time for reflection on pedagogical implications. If important goals are to be accomplished during the one-week institute, however, a tightly packed schedule will be needed to accommodate the various topics to be covered.

A four-week institute, simply because of its length, deserves additional planning. If the institute immediately follows the school year, teachers may tire early in the program. Your timing of events can help tremendously in sustaining momentum without overburdening the participants. Consider a variety of techniques to accomplish this. Including field trips can help vary the pace and introduce a new dimension into the program. There are often many opportunities for field trips, depending, of course, on the focus of the institute. Not only museums are worthy of such visits. A number of Japanese companies have opened plants in the U.S. and the executive officers are usually only too happy to provide tours of the facilities and discussions if their offices are contacted well in advance.

Ask the participants at the end of the first week to volunteer suggestions for changes. Following their suggestions can help alleviate many problems.

Staffing the Institute

It is assumed that teachers were involved in the initial planning of the institute and will be involved throughout. The issue of designating "master teachers," however, is a controversial one, and should be thoroughly discussed before assigning the roles to anyone. At a recent meeting of NEH project directors, the consensus was that such designations interfered with the congenial atmosphere to which directors of institutes aspired. Regardless, teachers must be involved in those areas where they have the most expertise, notably pedagogy demonstrations.

Another assumption is that Japanese nationals will be involved. The question is, what role will they play? This will depend in large part upon your proximity to, and your relationship with, members of the Japanese community. With more and more Japanese companies locating in the United States, opportunities to involve native Japanese in programs are increasing. Officers of companies, company wives, faculty and graduate students at nearby universities, are frequently eager to get involved either in planning, speaking, demonstrating, or offering tours. Two panel discussions were presented at a New England institute not long ago: one, on "Nihonjin-ron" (What It Means to be Japanese), included faculty and graduate students and was well-received by the audience. The other, on the role of the Japanese housewife in the education of her children, left the audience frustrated. Why? The teachers found it difficult to understand the newcomers' English. Having an interpreter available salvaged the discussion.

Including Japanese nationals in your program can raise another issue. Who is paid and for what? Formal presentations are rewarded with honoraria. But what is appropriate upon a visit to a company or the inclusion of non-academics in your program? Frequently, a gift is sufficient. Oft-appreciated gifts include items from the local area, especially those that indicate where they were produced.

Pedagogy versus Content

Another important planning issue is the balance between pedagogy and content or background material for teachers. While inspirational lecturers and high-powered content briefings are expected and enjoyed, most educators expect to spend some time focusing on classroom considerations, including lesson demonstrations, pedagogy discussions, and audio-visual and supplementary materials preview. Seminars conducted by the Great Lakes Japan-in-the-Schools Program and the Midwest Program for Teaching about Japan have tended to give roughly equal program time to both classroom material sessions and content sessions. The mix and balance will be an individual institute decision, reflecting the needs of participants.

Whatever content mix is decided upon, the individual sessions should model the enhanced pedagogy that is being encouraged. Few participants relish the thought of sitting through three hours of lectures every morning. Encourage presenters to use small group discussion and other interactive techniques in their sessions. Suggest and make use of audio-visual materials when appropriate.

Credit

If graduate credit is offered, materials should be sent to teachers in advance. Course registration can take place at check-in time, however. Advance arrangements must be made with a nearby college or university. The department chosen to work with is up to the institute planners, but in general, departments of education and/or continuing education promise to be the most cooperative, because they have experience in handling similar requests. The actual number of contact hours that the 'students' will spend with the presenters must be determined, so that an appropriate amount of credits can be assigned.

Another important detail to be attended to concerns those teachers who hope to earn salary credits based on contact hours. Simply notifying the superintendent of schools of the hours allows him or her to determine the value of the institute in terms of salary credits. Requirements of the course must be made clear to everyone in advance and should be spelled out to the superintendent.

This raises the question of assignments. Again, the institute's goals will determine the answers to related questions. Will the institute simply give the audience new information? Or, more than that? Will a product be expected from each of them? Would that product best be assembled during the confines of the institute, or do the teachers need more time—say six months to a year to create it and try it out in their classrooms? Is the purpose of the institute to prepare teachers to go back into their classrooms better able to implement an already-prescribed curriculum? These factors will shape the decisions about assignments.

Budgeting

At different times throughout the planning process, the question of finances will arise. It is important to raise at least the majority of funds before planning is completed and the institute is conducted. Fund-raising and institute management are both very difficult and demanding activities. While assembling co-sponsors, however, there may be opportunities to seek some funds or in-kind contributions. For example, a co-sponsoring Japanese cultural group may donate their talents and provide a koto concert along with explanations for institute participants. Similarly, a local Japanese restaurant may reduce its charge for a special institute banquet and a company may donate notebooks and tote bags.

Summer institutes typically require substantial funding, often from agencies such as the National Endowment for the Humanities or Japan-focused projects or foundations. Before approaching these agencies, a tentative budget is helpful. (Comparing notes with others who have conducted similar institutes will help highlight those small, but important items, such as refreshment breaks.) No matter how accomplished the staff's accounting acumen is, things come up, situations arise, that no one planned. Anticipate these things by including a contingency fund of several hundred dollars. Any funds not expended during the institute can be used for follow-up activities.

Media Coverage

No matter what the size of the budget or the scope of the institute, good things will happen. Why not share these with others? Coverage by the print and electronic media will help guarantee that others will not only know of the institute, but also appreciate the importance of the topic. Follow up initial press releases with calls to local television and radio stations inviting them to attend discussion sessions, interview participants, and query lecturers. Japan is in the national news; capitalize on that fact and get the local media involved in the institute.

In addition, arrangements might be made for various sessions, demonstrations, and events to be video taped. These tapes can be used by local school districts and cable television stations. The tapes can also be used in follow-up activities and to recruit participants for the next institute or workshop.

Residency: Home Away from Home

Have you required that all participants be in-residence? That can make a big difference when arranging the agenda. Providing a suite in a dormitory where teachers can informally gather to work on projects or simply rehash the days' events can mean the difference between frustration with the program and positive attitudes toward it.

Most institutes are offered on college campuses, with all that dormitory living implies. Wherever possible, it is best to arrange for single rooms. Putting all the men on one floor, all the women on another, helps when assigning bathroom facilities. Obviously, the importance of air-conditioning varies from location to location. Talk with those who have taught summer school on the campus where the institute's participants will be housed, in order to have a good idea of what to expect.

Organizational details, such as providing room fans (or at least warning participants that they should bring them along), may seem incidental, but are actually very important. Consider offering a tour of the campus at check-in time, highlighting those buildings where participants will spend most of their time. Handing them folders with information on the community in which the campus is housed will help them to feel at home, whether it is for a week or a month.

Include in that folder other reassuring details: parking permits with directions to parking lots; information about laundry, communications, computer and emergency care facilities; and the first week's menu, which should include a vegetarian alternative.

Opening the Institute

Making teachers feel comfortable at your institute is important not only in terms of money, facilities, and organization, but also in other important ways. Welcoming participants is a large part of the organizer's job, and once the correspondence phase is past, the time to begin is when participants arrive. Plan your opening reception (after check-in) as a time to help people relax. Having all major faculty/presenters there emphasizes that people are truly working together and assures participants that they are part of a worthwhile endeavor. This is a time for brief introductions, informal conversations, food and drink. Japanese beer, hot or cold sake, and barley tea are good conversation pieces, as are Japanese snacks (rice crackers, etc.). All are available at stores that feature products from Asia.

Recognition

Participants and their contributions to the institute should be rewarded as well. Press releases to local newspapers frequently result in feature stories about the hometown teacher who spends his or her summer in an activity that leads to revitalized teaching. A letter to the superintendent of schools, curriculum specialist, or department head (with a copy to the teacher) is generally appreciated, especially if at least part of that letter is personalized.

Small "graduation awards" or certificates of recognition can be handed out at the final meeting. These might be humorous or half-serious: an idea might be to name each of the participants for one of the famous personages studied in the course of the institute. Inexpensive certificates are available at local stationery stores or in most desk-top publishing software packages.

Such details help to continue the tone set right from the beginning. To promote community spirit, some institute leaders design special T-shirts to sell to participants. In keeping with this intent, they arrange for group photographs; plan for Japanese-style cooperative meals (prepared by presenters and participants alike); and organize an enjoyable evening of karaoke, which allows everyone to use a microphone to sing along with recorded music.

Evaluation

Be sure to plan on an outside evaluator when setting up the budget. A number of people have established themselves in consulting roles and a call to educational institutions in the area will give some idea of who might be contacted for these services. If that approach is not satisfactory, contact one of the program officers at the National Endowment for the Humanities for a recommendation. They require such evaluators, and can offer suggestions.

Do not rely entirely upon outsiders. Before the institute begins, in cooperation with teachers, draw up an evaluation tool that will serve the institute's purposes. Since you best know your goals, it should be fairly easy to construct an instrument that will help to measure whether those goals are being met. Be sure to include questions about individual sessions and activities as well as general, open-ended ones, such as, "What was the most worthwhile aspect of the institute?"

Broadening and Deepening the Experience

It's over . . . at least for the time being. The "graduation ceremony/farewell" has been held, room keys (as appropriate) have been collected, projects turned in, and everyone is heading home, satisfied that good work has been done. But it is not over, much more must be accomplished to make the experience a worthwhile one.

Follow-up sessions can take many forms, depending upon the institute's purposes: instructional, motivational, or both. The point is, they are essential to running a good institute. They can be used to allow the participants to return to a library or a resource center to do work on their own at their convenience. They can be organized for the entire group and feature speakers on subjects you were not able to cover—at all, or in sufficient depth—during the main part of the institute. They can serve as additional field trips to off-campus places of interest to the group and appropriate to their study.

Remembering that the institute's goal is to improve the teaching about Japan in U.S. classrooms, it might be best to use the time during the follow-up sessions to work on curriculum. This can be an opportunity to bring in teachers from outside the institute to demonstrate model lessons, or, to allow teachers from the summer institute to explain their attempts to integrate what they learned into their classrooms. Good demonstrations do not always feature successful lessons: sometimes introducing a project and telling what did not work with it is an excellent way to elicit discussion from teachers eager to enhance their teaching experiences.

One model for follow-up sessions includes a one-week seminar during the following summer. This is a time for teachers to return to campus for many of the same purposes listed above; however, the main purpose is to allow teachers to "walk" their colleagues through the lessons or activities they have developed as a result of the previous summer's institute. Their lessons may be presented for the entire group, or the group may be divided into sub-groups according to grade level or topic.

If the above is part of the plan, it is important to request that teachers arrive with enough copies for everyone, or to arrange to duplicate the appropriate number of copies in advance. Again, making this requirement clear in advance is essential if you want to avoid potential problems.

Another important follow-up activity involves the site visit: visiting the classrooms of teacher-participants. Think about the value of such visits when designing your institute. There may be many reasons for including such visits. Lessons can be demonstrated; presentations at the school's faculty meeting can advocate the inclusion of Japan in the curriculum; lessons or activities taught by a teacher-participant can be observed; library collections and school displays on Japan can be examined; also, administrators can be informed about the institute or the program you represent.

In addition, institute faculty and other presenters can take part in the site visits. Often they can serve as resources for teachers and students, and provide bibliographies and other suggestions for further study. Regardless, be realistic. The schools of 25 participants cannot all be visited in one academic year, unless everyone is located within a one- or two-hour drive. Once again, decide in advance the value of the site visit, and plan accordingly.

In summary, then, a summer institute can be a rewarding experience for participants, presenters, and organizers alike if it is accompanied by meticulous planning and attention to detail. It is an exhausting and exhilarating experience. We hope this chapter provides useful information on this exciting educational challenge and opportunity.

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Anatomy of a Curriculum Development Project

Gary Mukai

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an inside view of a curriculum development project. The curriculum development project, *Religion in Japan and a Look at Cultural Transmission*, was developed over a two year period from 1988-1990, by The Japan Project, Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education (SPICE), Stanford University. Section one of this chapter examines a needs assessment and state requirements placed upon educators usually in the form of curriculum guidelines, frameworks, standards, etc. Section two introduces the educator to the conceptualization of the curriculum writing process. A conceptualization grid developed by SPICE will be discussed. Section three explores the curriculum research and writing process. This includes a focus on interactive teaching strategies; multiple perspectives, balance, diversity; and the use of practitioners, content experts, and teachers. Section four focuses on evaluation. The review by faculty and scholars of the curriculum materials and also the field-testing of the curriculum materials are the subjects of this section. Finally, section five covers dissemination.

Section One: Needs Assessment

The need to develop curriculum materials on Japan has never been greater. Japanese society, culture, and economics are frequently in the news in the United States. Recent newsstand cover stories have included the following:

> Japan is portrayed as an exaggeratedly fat sumo wrestler, with a small head and belly about the same size as a drawing of the Earth, on the cover of the May 1989 issue of *The Atlantic Magazine*. The cover caption reads "Containing Japan."
>
> The Columbia Pictures statue is pictured as a geisha on the cover of the October 9, 1989 issue of *Newsweek Magazine*. The cover caption reads "Japan Invades Hollywood."
>
> The red circle of the Japanese flag appears on the cover of the January 22, 1990 issue of *The New Republic Magazine*. "Yen for Power" appears in the red circle which is overshadowing a map of the United States.
>
> On the cover of the February 26, 1990 issue of *Fortune Magazine*, Mt. Fuji, the Japanese flag, a Japanese car with a menacing personification, and Tokyo with its many multinational corporations, are images overlooking Palo Alto and Silicon Valley, the Midwest, and New York. The cover caption reads "Fear and Loathing of Japan."
>
> A crying infant holding an American flag dominated the cover of the April 2, 1990 issue of *Newsweek Magazine*. The cover caption reads "What Japan Thinks of Us: A Nation of Crybabies?"

The focus on Japan as a key player in the international arena is encouraging, however educators working with students in elementary/secondary schools and classrooms must be concerned about negative images. There is strong evidence that much of the coverage of news events and stories is increasingly highlighting the tensions and pressures between the United States and Japan, pressures which are complex and real, but inadequately explained and developed in the media.

The impact of such limited and biased news coverage gives ample cause for concern. In a February, 1990 *New York Times*/CBS News Poll, 25% of U.S. citizens say their attitudes toward Japan are "generally unfriendly," up from 19% in June and 8% in 1985. This statistically significant increase follows a period during which unfriendly opinion was essentially stable. This information was corroborated by the *New York Times* through interviews with both ordinary U.S. citizens and leading Japan watchers. The trend shown by this survey and several others with similar findings points to a need to supplement media coverage with strong efforts in schools and classrooms to assist students in gaining a more complete and balanced view of Japan and the Japanese. This is the need which the curriculum of The Japan Project hopes to meet.

In selecting topics for curriculum development projects, The Japan Project has taken a critical look at the *History-Social Science Framework for California Public Schools*. This Framework aims to establish a sequential curriculum for K-12, so that "all of our children will develop understanding and knowledge about their own nation and about the other major civilizations in the world." (*History-Social Science Framework for California Public Schools* 1988, vii). *Religion in Japan and a Look at Cultural Transmission* has its origins in the Grade Seven section of the Framework. This section focuses on "World History and Geography: Medieval and Early Modern Times." The section on Japan reads:

> Students will focus next on Japan during the reign of Prince Shotoku (A.D. 592-622). Students should observe Japan's close geographic proximity to the more ancient civilization of China and analyze how that led to the borrowing of ideas, institutions, and technology. At the same time they should consider how its insular location facilitated Japan's political independence, allowing it to borrow selectively and to fashion a culture uniquely its own.
>
> With the establishment of direct relations between the Chinese and Japanese courts in A.D. 607, Japanese artists, craftspersons, scribes, interpreters, and diplomatic dignitaries made frequent visits to China. Members of Japan's upper classes studied Chinese language, literature, philosophy, art, science, and government. Buddhism was introduced and blended with Japan's traditional Shinto religion, "the way of the gods." (*History-Social Science Framework for California Public Schools* 65)

Many states have similar curriculum frameworks, guidelines, or standards published by state departments of education. In addition, some states like California also have publications specific to a subject area. *Moral and Civic Education and Teaching About Religion*, published by the California Department of Education, is an example of such a publication which was utilized in the development of *Religion in Japan and a Look at Cultural Transmission*. The National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) also publishes position statements on areas such as the teaching of religion and is also an important source of information for the educator developing curriculum.

In summary, prior to embarking upon any curriculum development project, it is vital to conduct a needs assessment and investigate state requirements by way of curriculum frameworks, guidelines, or standards. In addition, organizations like NCSS offer useful information for curriculum development.

Section Two: Conceptualization

In the conceptualization phase (or the structural formation of ideas) of curriculum development, SPICE recommends the use of a matrix such as the one at the end of this chapter in Appendix A.

Prior to filling in spaces in the matrix, a theme, which helps to bring unity to, and is the driving force of, the various lessons in the curriculum project, should be discussed. For the curriculum project focusing on religion in Japan, "cultural transmission" was selected as a theme and this theme is what drives all of the lessons in the curriculum project. The various sections of the curriculum development matrix should then be discussed. A recorder should fill in various sections of the matrix. Ideally, content experts, curriculum specialists, and grade level experts should take part in the conceptualization phase. It is important to note that the various subcategories of the matrix (e.g., organizing question, content, supporting questions, objectives) can vary depending on the curriculum development project.

Section Three: Curriculum Research and Writing

Following the conceptualization phase, the curriculum research and writing process begins. Curriculum produced by the Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education has the following features which are kept in mind throughout the curriculum writing process.

1. Interactive teaching strategies—Students are actively engaged with the learning material through a variety of group activities and through multi-modal curriculum. Lessons are student-centered and often involve hands-on activities as well as primary source materials and documents. As a result, research for lessons often involves interviewing people, looking through archival materials, analyzing documents, and taking slides of relevant places, events, and people.

2. Emphasis on multiple perspectives, balance, diversity—In exploring any issue, it is important to present a range of perspectives. Ideally, three or more points of view on a continuum should be presented for students to recognize the complexities within an issue. In addition, presentation of multiple viewpoints should be balanced,

that is, equally fair and thorough on all viewpoints covered. Perspectives should be introduced and analyzed without teacher advocacy. Students must recognize that diversity is an inherent factor in any community or society. Students should gain an understanding of the processes by which societies and individuals come to have particular perspectives.

3. Utilizing practitioners, content experts, teachers—During the curriculum research and writing process, it is vital to consult with practitioners, content experts, and teachers. In the religion in Japan curriculum, Japanese religion scholars, world history/social studies teachers, practicing Buddhist priests, and curriculum experts were consulted.

The lesson listed in Appendix D, "Three Personal Profiles" is excerpted from *Religion in Japan and a Look at Cultural Transmission*. The various parts of the lesson (i.e., Objectives of the Lesson, Materials, Introduction, Suggested Procedure, and Handouts) are in bold face.

Section Four: Evaluation

Following the development of cohesive lessons which are unified with a common theme like "cultural transmission," scholars in a field related to the curriculum topic read and comment primarily on the content of the lessons. Curriculum experts and educators are also asked to review not only the content, but also the pedagogical foundation of the lessons. Following their comments, the lessons are edited.

Following this editing, the curriculum unit is classroom field-tested in diverse settings (e.g., socio-economic, ethnic, urban/rural). The editing prior to the field-testing is very crucial because the materials and information in the lessons are going into the hands of educators and students. Comments from educators and students are obtained through both written forms and oral interviews. See Appendix B for a sample educator evaluation form. In the field-testing of *Religion in Japan and a Look at Cultural Transmission*, the curriculum developers were actually present in the classroom during some of the field-testing. Observations were also noted through these "participant-observer" roles.

A final editing of the lessons is done based on feedback from educators and students, and from classroom observations. Scholars then review the curriculum one final time. See Appendix C for a sample scholar evaluation form. In the case of *Religion in Japan and a Look at Cultural Transmission*, professors of Japanese history and religion reviewed the curriculum in addition to the practicing Buddhist priests who submitted their profiles for the lesson on "Three Personal Profiles" contained in this chapter.

Section Five: Dissemination

SPICE disseminates curriculum units primarily through workshops for educators and through its catalog of curriculum materials. In addition, SPICE provides curriculum and staff development resources for the California International Studies Project (CISP), which consists of nine regional international studies resource centers throughout California. On curriculum topics related to foreign language education, SPICE works in conjunction with the California Foreign Language Project (CFLP), which is a collaborative statewide network of nine centers that addresses the staff development needs of California's foreign language educators and supports school districts in the implementation of communication-based foreign language programs. These nine centers are integrated with the nine CISP centers.

In addition to the dissemination channels mentioned above, The Japan Project of SPICE disseminates information about its curriculum through several Japan and/or Asia related organizations. Namely, these are the Japan Information Center (Consulate General of Japan, San Francisco), National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network (funded by the United States-Japan Foundation), Committee on Teaching about Asia (a committee of the Association for Asian Studies), The Japan Society of Northern California, and Northern California Secondary Teachers of Nihongo.

Many of the curriculum units of The Japan Project are listed in the National Clearinghouse for U.S.-Japan Studies' database, established to assist classroom teachers, supervisors and administrators, college-level instructors, policy makers, and others to obtain information about Japanese society and culture, and U.S.-Japan relations. Educators are urged to send descriptions of successful activities and lessons to the Clearinghouse for review and for possible inclusion in their database. The address and phone number of the Clearinghouse can be found in the listing of the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network.

This chapter was designed to provide an examination of a curriculum development project. Hopefully the ideas presented will be useful to other educators as they design supplementary materials. Please contact the SPICE project (consult the listing of the National

Precollegiate Japan Projects Network) for additional information about this and other supplemental materials that are available.

Appendix A: Curriculum Development Matrix*

LESSON	ORGANIZING QUESTION	SUPPORTING QUESTIONS	OBJECTIVES	CONTENT	ACTIVITIES & STRATEGIES	MATERIALS
I						
II						
III						
IV						
V						

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* developed by Jennifer Jue (California Foreign Language Project) and Hua Yang (formerly with SPICE)

Appendix B: Education Evaluation Form

1. In what types of classes would this curriculum unit be appropriate? (subject, grade level, general student ability)

2. What are the strongest points of this unit?

3. What are the weakest points of this unit?

4. State the changes you would like to see in the format of the unit's lesson plans?

5. What specific changes, if any, would you make to the preface, introduction, handouts, procedure, and/or activities?

6. Does the unit adequately meet its goals and objectives?

7. Are the time allotments accurate?

8. Comment on student reactions to the unit.

9. Comment on the factual content of the unit.

10. Is this unit biased in any way? Are a range of views fairly represented?

11. Would you use all or only certain parts of the unit? Which parts would you use?

Appendix C: Scholar Evaluation Form

1. What are the strongest parts of the unit? The weakest? Please comment especially on the unit's content. Comments on pedagogical methods are also welcome.

2. What specific changes, if any, would you make to the preface, introduction, handouts, procedure, and/or activities?

3. Are the goals and objectives of this unit appropriate?

4. Does the unit present an accurate overview of the topics it covers?

5. Is the unit biased in any way? Have multiple viewpoints been given, without emphasis on any one in particular?

6. Have essential facts or viewpoints been omitted?

7. Would you have any concerns about the use of this material at the precollegiate level?

8. Would you use this unit yourself or recommend its use by other educators?

Appendix D: Three Personal Profiles

The following lesson is excerpted from *Religion in Japan and a Look at Cultural Transmission*, Stanford Program on International and Cross-cultural Education (SPICE), 1990.

Objectives of the Lesson

Knowledge

- learn that religion is passed from generation to generation by committed believers (cultural transmission)
- understand that Buddhism is practiced today in the United States and Japan
- learn that religious teachers and leaders work to convey values and beliefs to others

Attitude

- examine the ways in which a religion is spread from one culture to another and one generation to the next
- try to come to an understanding of why some people choose to become religious leaders and become aware of the concerns that they hope to address

Skill

- analyze primary sources
- share information and opinions
- practice writing skills and formulate a letter

Materials

Handout #5A: Profile Questions for Small Groups, one per group
Handout #5B: Profile of Shindo Nomura, copies for 2 small groups
Handout #5C: Profile of Reverend Susan Eko Tanaka, copies for 2 small groups
Handout #5D: Profile of Reverend Hiroshi Abiko, copies for 2 small groups

Introduction

In this lesson, students will have the opportunity to become acquainted with three Buddhists who are actively involved in the process of cultural transmission. They will also have an opportunity to write a cooperative letter to one of the three Buddhists. Begin the lesson by telling the students that the presence of Japanese Buddhism in the United States continues the process of cultural transmission of Buddhism that began in India and spread through China and Korea to Japan. Two of the three Buddhists profiled in this lesson are practicing Buddhists in the United States. The other Buddhist is a young man practicing Buddhism in Japan.

Remind the students that there are different kinds of Japanese Buddhism and that three of several existing sects of Buddhism are represented in the profiles. Also, let students know that while primary sources are valuable because of the first hand knowledge and information they provide, they don't necessarily reflect the opinions and viewpoints of all the people who are members of that particular group.

Encourage the students as much as possible to discuss the content of the profiles and to express their reactions. The profile questions should help to facilitate the discussion. Lastly, encourage the application of content from past lessons when examining the profiles.

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Suggested Procedure

1. Divide students into six groups of four or five, and designate small group roles (e.g., recorder, reporter, facilitator).

2. Distribute the profiles to the six small groups (two groups each receive a copy of one of the profiles). Allow about ten minutes for students to read the profiles. The reading can be done individually or as a group, having one student read orally.

3. Pass out one copy of Handout #5A: *Profile Questions* per group. Students should use these questions to help guide their letter writing. The recorder in each group may wish to take notes on student responses to the questions.

4. Allow students to compose letters in which they ask questions to the Buddhists or share their reactions to the profiles.

5. Towards the end of the period, allow each small group to share its letters with the class.

6. Teachers are encouraged to select one of these letters (per profilee) and mail it to the following addresses. Each profilee has agreed to receive the letters from the students. Do **NOT** mail more than one letter from the class to each profilee. Limit questions to a few important ones by asking students to prioritize the questions.

   Addresses:

   Reverend Hiroshi Abiko
   c/o Palo Alto Buddhist Church
   2751 Louis Road
   Palo Alto, CA 94303

   Reverend Eko Susan Tanaka
   c/o Mandala Buddhist Center
   Rd. 1, Box 2380
   Bristol, VT 05443-8841

   Mr. Shindo Nomura
   c/o Daiganji Temple
   22-2 Wakamatsu-cho
   Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo
   JAPAN

   Note: The postage required to send a .5 ounce letter to Japan is $.50

7. As a final activity, collect the *omikuji* which the students did for Lesson 4's homework and place them into a box. Have all students randomly take one. This will be their fortune for the day.

PROFILE QUESTIONS

Handout #5A

The following are some questions to help guide you in writing a group letter to the person whose profile you have.

1. What do you think inspired this person to become a Buddhist priest?

2. What problems in society does he/she hope to address?

3. Please describe the values and/or goals expressed.

4. Does the person wish to spread his/her religion?

5. In addition to religious ideas, what else might a religion transmit?

6. What can we learn from the presence of Japanese religion in our society?

7. Think of two key questions for the person in the profile.

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PROFILE OF SHINDO NOMURA

Handout #5B

Shindo Nomura is 19 years old and presently studying at Nichiren Shoshu Temple in Tokyo to become a Nichiren Buddhist priest. As a high school student in Shizuoka, he developed a strong interest in traveling to other countries in order to spread the Nichiren Buddhist teachings. He was very active in the English speaking club and entered an English speech contest, winning first place. The following is the text of his speech.

My Mission

My hair is cut short as you can see. But I'm not a baseball player or a judo wrestler. In fact, I'm a young priest practicing in a large Buddhist temple in Shizuoka Prefecture. I would like you to know that there are such young men like me. We come from various parts of Japan, from Hokkaido, in the north, to Okinawa, in the south. In the sixth grade, we took an exam to become priests and half of us passed it. About 150 of us live at the temple, apart from our parents.

Our daily life is very difficult. We get up at five in the morning. We clean our temple everyday. There are many rules. For example, we are not allowed to read comic books or have tape recorders but we are allowed to listen to the radio. We are only permitted to watch television on Saturdays and our meals, in general, are very poor. Our usual menu is rice and miso (soy bean paste) soup with a little side dish.

You may wonder why I decided to become a priest. Our religion has spread to over a hundred countries but the number of our temples in foreign countries is few. From now on, we must go abroad. English is used in many countries. I am learning English to spread our religion to foreign countries and I try to talk to foreigners who come to our temple. Every year our temple welcomes more than ten thousand people from all over the world.

In the future, I'd like to go to Africa. It is said that one man dies every two seconds in the world. People in Africa die of starvation every day, and most of them are children. Even if they are alive today, they may die tomorrow. When I hear of the news about Africa, I cannot say that temple life is hard at all. People in Japan seldom or never suffer from extreme poverty these days.

Why are the conditions in Africa and Japan so different? We are all human beings on the same planet. We should try to take the situation in Africa more seriously.

There is another problem that I would like to address: the problem of war. About forty years have passed since the end of World War II. Now Japan seems peaceful. But the scars of the war still remain even today. An old lady lives near our temple. Her face was burned in an explosion during the war. She always greets us with a smile. However, she must have sad memories of the past behind her smile. I think that those who have experienced war really know the misery of war and can truly appreciate peace. Everyone must understand the importance of peace. I would like to make a contribution to the world, as a priest, through spreading the idea of peace and helping those who are suffering.

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REVEREND EKO SUSAN TANAKA

Handout #5C

Reverend Eko Susan Tanaka, who graduated from a Japanese Buddhist nunnery in 1988, is the first foreign (non-Japanese) woman to undergo the difficult training practices of becoming a Shingon Buddhist priest. She is married to Reverend Jomyo Tanaka who came to the United States about ten years ago to introduce the Shingon teachings to U.S. citizens. The Tanakas run the Mandala Buddhist Center in Vermont where they teach Shingon meditation practice.

I was raised as a Roman Catholic. I attended public school and went to catechism classes on Saturdays until I entered high school. The concepts of non-violence and control of one's own spiritual destiny through practice strongly attracted me to Buddhism. I began practicing Buddhism, as opposed to just reading about it, in 1980, when I was a university student studying in Tokyo at International Christian University. Being in Japan, I became more and more convinced that I could not understand the culture unless I truly encountered Buddhism because its influence was so great.

My studies first began at Soji-Temple, one of the two headquarters of a sect of Zen called Sotoshu, in Yokohama. I went there every Sunday to sit in meditation all day for about six months. When I returned to New York, I encountered the Shingon tradition and studied intensively for four years. I completed my training and ordination in Japan at Mt. Koya, at the Koyasan Niso Shudo-in, in March of 1988. I am currently living and working at the Mandala Buddhist Center which relocated from New York to Lincoln, Vermont. We give instruction in meditation twice weekly and will be holding summer retreats for U.S. citizens as well as Japanese students coming from Japan.

Jomyo, my husband, teaches in Japan on a regular basis and we are planning to teach in Mexico and Europe later this year.

My role as a Buddhist priest in the U.S. is one of being a resource, available to anyone who may have interest in Buddhism. We visit public and private schools, museums, and libraries to give lectures about Japanese Buddhism and culture. In Japan the role of a priest is strictly defined. Spreading the Dharma in countries like the U.S. which are basically Judeo-Christian will require a somewhat different approach, one of considerable strength and vision because new ground is being broken. Because the study of Shingon is relatively new to citizens of the Americas and Europe, I feel a great responsibility to demonstrate that Westerners too can understand and live their lives as Buddhists. Personally, becoming a priest was a very natural outcome of my study and religious vocation. I am very happy to have completed the rigorous training that the Shingon tradition requires and will energetically continue to practice and observe my vow of benefitting all sentient beings.

I believe in gentle and quiet transmission of Buddhist teachings. I do not envision Buddhism as a politically active religion, nor do I think it is absolutely necessary to convert people. If we can touch their hearts with the teaching, help them to change little by little by giving them the tools and techniques to do so themselves, then our mission, so to speak, has been fulfilled.

I think that it is very important to raise children with spiritual values and a clear sense of morality. Of course, being Buddhist, it would naturally follow that our children would be raised as Buddhist, but ultimately I would like them to be free to follow their own spiritual path when they are able to decide for themselves.

The immediate benefits of meditation practice are a sense of calmness, clarity, and insight. One makes a solemn vow to help not only oneself, but to benefit everyone. This can be realized in many different ways and on many different levels. The most important thing is to cultivate wisdom and energy through one's own practice and share this with others. Helping others is the ultimate goal.

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PROFILE OF REVEREND HIROSHI ABIKO

Handout #5D

Hiroshi Abiko is the Reverend at the Palo Alto Buddhist Temple in Palo Alto, California. Reverend Abiko is a Japanese-American whose ministry can be traced back many centuries in Japan. He is the twenty-fifth generation to continue the tradition of spreading the Jodo Shinshu teachings, one type of Japanese Buddhism that has made its way to the United States. Reverend Abiko is very active in the community. In addition to conducting Sunday services and classes for children, he also works to help the homeless and tries to reach out to people in the community who may not be members of the Palo Alto Buddhist Temple. In this profile, he describes what led him to become a Buddhist minister and discusses both his role and the role of the Buddhist temple in society.

I was born in the United States as the second son to a Buddhist minister. At the age of five I moved to Japan with my family and attended a public school. I later returned to the U.S. when I was ten years old and resumed attending the public schools here. Since my father was a Buddhist minister, I attended Sunday school taught at his temple. My parents' everyday habits, customs, and sayings were also an excellent form of education transmitted to me. My parents were kind and understanding teachers.

High school and university life in the U.S. gave me the opportunity to discover what I wanted to do with my life. During my last few years at the university, there was a definite need for me to single-out a path to take. That path was to follow the footsteps of the Buddha and to seriously study his teachings. That decision led me to go to Japan again where I attended post-graduate school and lived at a monastery. I found that the path I had chosen was gentle, meaningful, and

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enjoyable and that the deeper I entered the path, the more truthful and real everything became.

As a Buddhist minister, I try to cultivate the understanding that there is no discrimination between society and the citizen. To continue the nurturing of 'I am found in the society and the society is found in me' is an important daily practice. Buddhist practices, when applied, prepare a person to fill the societal needs naturally with no demonstrative reactions. There are many problems in society which I hope to address: dependence on drugs; homelessness and the gap between the haves and don't haves; broken families; discrimination in race, color, creed, gender, age, and wealth; greed. I strive to spread awareness and restore ethical values. I try to remove, ease, and understand the pain and suffering of all beings and to share the teachings of Buddha as widely as possible. The temple doors are open to everyone.

In both Japan and the U.S., Jodo Shinshu temples are good religious, educational, cultural, social, and recreational centers with many activities held daily. The criteria of a temple is that it has Buddha, or an object of workshop, Dharma, or teachings to be understood and practiced, and the Sangha, or fellow beings who apply the teachings which they have studied in their everyday life. In my estimation, the members of Jodo Shinshu temples in the U.S. are very skillful in interacting with each other, creating programs and implementing them, and maintaining a Sangha.

My hope is to become an extraordinary ordinary person and to spend each precious day as meaningfully as possible. I would like my children to follow Buddhism but it is up to them to make that decision. No one really listens to another's demands and this is especially true in regard to one's children. Children learn from the daily humble deeds of their parents. I see their future in my everyday life.

5

Creating a Japanese Teaching Resource Center

Yasemin A. Oguzertem
and C. Frederick Risinger

The main goal of any teaching resource center, whether at the precollegiate or college level, is to improve both the instruction and learning processes, and to provide a variety of resources and services to both faculty and students. The suggestions outlined in this chapter are by no means exclusive to Japan and Japanese culture. Recent trends and increasing interest in Pacific Rim countries, especially Japan, make it appropriate to use Japan as a model to illustrate the purpose of this chapter.

A "resource center" is defined as being between a "library" and an "archive." The resource center is not a library because of the limited and multi-media nature of its collections. The resource center is not an archive because circulation and use are more important than the mere preservation of information. There is no absolute for chronological consistency or comprehensiveness in a resource center. Therefore, we define a resource center as "a collection of items, including both print/non-print materials, and other information sources brought together to be shared with others." In this case, the materials are designed to help teachers in their efforts to promote understanding of another culture in an educational setting.

Resource centers are naturally different from one another, but there are similarities in the way they are established and operated. The guidelines given here are designed for a precollegiate school setting and for persons who serve such audiences. They can be perceived as a type of "smorgasbord." That is, you can choose those aspects that best fit your purposes and objectives, and omit others. The model here does not claim to be final and appropriate for every situation.

A key element in the process is the interest and expertise of the person or persons who will take the initiative in the early implementation phases. They should be familiar with the unique nature and characteristics of their own institutions in implementing the guidelines.

Two case studies are appended at the end of the chapter. The first is an example of a college-based resource center, serving college, precollegiate and community needs, and the second is a precollegiate focused "Japan Teacher Center", based at a high school. This chapter is addressed to an officially or self designated initiator (or director) of a teaching resource center, and the points to be considered are presented from his or her perspective.

We would like to acknowledge the generosity of Jackson Bailey and Elaine Vukov of Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana and Dorothie C. Shah of Evanston, Illinois, Township High School in sharing their experiences with us. Their assistance was invaluable.

Assessing Needs, Demands, and Available Resources and Facilities

A resource center in an educational setting should provide as much assistance as possible at the lowest possible price to the users. A successful resource center is based on a needs assessment, review of resources, analysis of the potential users and step-by-step evaluation. The following suggested procedures, while time tested, should be modified or even ignored if your specific situation requires it. Underplanning may lead to a resource center that does not meet the needs of its users or discourage wide participation in planning and subsequent utilization.

Asking the right questions. The first step must naturally begin with someone or a group saying, "We need a resource center for that area!" Then, the following questions must be asked:

- Is there a need for a resource center on this topic?

- What kinds of resource demands are we receiving from teachers regarding assistance in planning and instruction?
- Will our potential users be willing to contribute time or other resources to a center?
- Do we have the resources, facilities, and personnel to establish and operate a center?
- Who will use it?
- How will it operate?
- How will we evaluate its effectiveness?

These questions should be asked individually or preferably in a group session following usual brain-storming rules: (1) all responses are listed; (2) no evaluation of responses is made; and (3) divergent thinking is encouraged. Then, group the responses under specific topics such as needs, audience, demands, personnel, resources, and evaluation.

Needs and Demands. Need is the discrepancy between the actual and the ideal state. Examine your present situation (without a resource center) and imagine what it would be like if one existed. What is missing now? How much would instruction be improved if a resource center existed? Can the resources be obtained through other sources? The answers to these questions can help you decide if the results are worth the necessary effort and expenditure of resources.

At this point, it is advisable to talk to members of your potential audience. Get their advice and collect more information about what others may think should be the purpose of a future resource center, and the kinds of materials and services it would provide. No one person can be the expert; everybody knows a little and the collection of ideas can help to identify the expertise needed on the topic. In these early stages, continue to use your colleagues as an informal advisory board.

Audience. The needs and characteristics of the potential users determine the structure and operation of the resource center. Here are several items to consider when analyzing your audience:

- Background of the teachers: experience abroad; educational background; spouses from other cultures; facility in foreign languages, and courses and grade levels taught.
- Background of the students: ethnicity; international travel experience; any multicultural experiences; grade level or subject; and language skills.
- The Curriculum: global studies; world history; Asian history; comparative education; world geography; Japanese studies.

- Current Similiar Efforts: regular film and/or slide shows; group presentations; student exchange programs; sister city programs; religious contacts and cultural days.
- Nature of the Community: ethnicity; economic base; business; religious; or cultural links to other nations.
- Opportunities for innovation and creativity: any upcoming curriculum revision; any already-existing staff development activities; any new courses planned; and other efforts at instructional improvement.

Facilities. Make a list of the facilities available and what is needed to establish and operate a resource center. These may include a media center, equipment and supplies, or a room available for the purpose. Then list those things needed such as better lighting for the room, shelving, another slide projector, a computer, or other supplies. Use responses to the potential audience questions to determine the necessary room size, type and amount of seating, the type of shelving or cabinets, and other facility requirements.

Assistance from Specialists. It is always good to identify and talk with people who might be helpful with their experience, advice, and expertise in the area. These might include school media specialists, local librarians, and community or business groups. Begin to develop a network of contacts within your local area or with professional colleagues.

As early as possible, it is important to identify content specialists. For example, in the case of a Japan resource center, these would include East Asian scholars and nationals. These cultural experts can provide valuable assistance in the initial planning stages. They can serve as advisors and evaluators regarding acquisitions and/or as valuable members of an advisory council.

Resources and Materials. Consider what existing resources are available. How can people in your institution contribute to the resource center? Prepare a questionnaire for the faculty and/or the students to identify hidden talents and resources. Many resource centers begin with individually contributed items. Nothing is too small to be considered. You may begin to accumulate many items such as postcards, maps, pictures, souvenirs, books, booklets, brochures, posters (many can be secured from airlines and tourist organizations), music cassette tapes, videotapes, journals, newspaper clippings, and slides. Be sure to ask for everyday items such as dishes, clothing, and school items. Realia can be useful when teaching about a culture that is quite different. You can ask the people of the community to donate items.

These items, once catalogued, can be shared with colleagues for the development of lessons and student activities.

Establishing Priorities

During this phase, refining the purposes of the center and outlining how it will operate begin. Referring to the information collected thus far, and the needs/resource assessment, decide if there is enough need, room, appropriate facilities, and sufficient human and financial resources to operate a resource center in your institution. If the answer is yes, the next step is to establish priorities. Decisions should initially include:

1. What will be the purpose and scope of the center? and
2. What are the guidelines for selecting materials and determining the services offered by the center?

The answers depend on information collected during your earlier investigations. The characteristics of your audience, the present and future status of your curriculum, the nature of needs and interests, the resources available, and the general profile of your school will help identify priorities. Will your center be topic specific, such as one focusing only on Japan, or one that covers broader topics such as global studies or all social studies subjects? What kind of activities and services will be provided? It is usually easier and safer to start out small and expand the scope and activities gradually as the need, interest, and support arise and grow.

Funding and Continuation of Support

Jackson Bailey, the director of one of our case study resource centers, emphasizes that "funding is an ongoing multi-layered combination of hard(institutional) and soft(non-institutional) money. If you have good ideas, money will come from somewhere." Administrative support is very important to successful fund raising, whether from the institutional budget or from outside resources. Shared funding involving institutional (hard money) and non-institutional (soft money) sources is a frequently-used tactic.

This is probably the most significant factor in determining the scope and operational style of the resource center. All other factors—the personnel, the services provided to teachers and other clients, the facilities, even the hours the center will be open—are directly dependent on the resource center's financial support. While a successful resource center can be established and operated with limited resources, much more can be accomplished with adequate financial support.

There are two primary categories of funding: (1) actual monetary support; and (2) in-kind support. "In-kind" refers to contributed nonmonetary resources such as time, facilities, materials, release time for teachers to visit the center or attend workshops, and other support not requiring direct transfer of funds to the center from another agency. In-kind support should not be considered a "second choice" or last resort in your planning. Frequently, this type of backing can be more consistent and helpful than actual money, such as a grant from a foundation or a one-time spending authorization from a local school board. For example, if a school board approves half-day release time for a teacher to manage a resource center, the amount of money linked to that decision will increase each year without subsequent requests.

Examples of in-kind funding frequently used to support resource centers and other projects include release time for center personnel and for teachers to participate in center activities; volunteer services of parents or other citizens; donations of books and other materials from teachers, local college faculty, and citizens; and space contributed by the school system or another agency. Indiana University's Social Studies Curriculum Resource Center began with contributions of books and journal collections from faculty members, space carved out of an attic dormitory, and secretarial and management time contributed by the university. Additional materials were obtained by contacting publishers, explaining the purpose of the center and requesting free copies of textbooks, supplemental materials, and teacher's guides. The collection, which now numbers more than 12,000 items was originally cataloged by volunteers from the community and graduate library students who received course credit for internships.

Obtaining "real" money or actual monetary support is often the first alternative considered by individuals or groups who wish to establish a resource center. However, most school boards, foundations, and other funding agencies look for some evidence of local support, frequently represented by in-kind contributions, so be careful to identify and list in-kind support in any proposal for actual monetary support.

The most likely source of support for a school district resource center is the local school board. Evidence of community support and commitment by faculty and students for the proposed center are essential. Try to speak directly to the school board rather than simply sending the proposal through administrative channels. Ask other teachers and even students to attend the meeting and indicate their support.

Other funding sources include local service organizations, businesses that are associated with the nation or nations being included in the center, churches, and even individuals who are willing to support the endeavor. In recent years, several states have passed legislation enabling local school districts to establish community foundations that raise funds and support various school-related programs.

Of course, feasibility committees will often think about funding from a major private national or regional foundation as a desired first choice for support. These sources can be beneficial; but often, the proposal process is complicated and the number of grants represents only a small percentage of proposals received. Collaboration with an area college or university is frequently the best way to approach a foundation or other major agency. The college's development office will have lists of potential funding groups, information about types of programs usually funded, and proposal submission guidelines and dates. Moreover, participation by higher education faculty in a cooperative project can often strengthen any proposal. Do not think of this as a favor. A resource center offers the college an opportunity to reach teachers, and through them, many students. Many foundations consider links with schools as positive attributes when making their decisions, and some even require "outreach" activities as part of a proposal.

Remember, a resource center does not have to be funded by a single source. Putting together a mix of funding sources—both actual monetary and in-kind support—is often easier and, in some ways, preferable to support from a single agency. That single agency may decide to withdraw support, thus effectively terminating the resource center. With combined support, on the other hand, the withdrawal of a single source of support will not usually jeopardize the continuation of the center.

Implementing, Adapting, and Revising Activities

Once the decisions on projects and activities are made, it is time for organization. Some items to consider at this stage are:

- facility preparation
- personnel - volunteer and professional
- organization and preparation of the facility

- organization of the staff
- obtaining the necessary materials

Volunteer work is often crucial in establishing resource centers. Types of volunteer work may include physical help such as moving furniture or materials, contributions of equipment, materials or supplies, expert cultural advice, and clerical support. These contributions can help especially in the early stages of operation. Cataloging materials, shelving them, and developing a list or catalog of resources are the essential first activities for a functional center. Such volunteer activity, creates awareness about the resource center and encourages both additional contributions and future use. Publicize the center through the school newsletter, bulletin boards, brochures and fliers, and presentations to faculty and students.

Even if the resource center is fortunate enough to have a professional staff, try to encourage the involvement of as many volunteers as possible. Incentives such as announcing the donation of an artifact or volunteer assistance provides recognition and encourages more involvement.

Obtaining materials and other resources depends on the financial status. It is always helpful to go back and review the needs, purposes, and resources and be ready to revise the initial plan and priorities. Make adjustments as necessary. Keeping a checklist of supplies and materials already obtained and still needed is very helpful for such purposes.

Evaluation and Expansion of Services

Evaluation must be a continuous process in the operation of any resource center. A list of all users including grade level and subject taught should be kept and if possible, a carefully designed evaluation form should be completed by each user. Address bigger audiences through such activities as films, lectures, workshops, etc. These kinds of activities will improve awareness in the community, and such awareness will bring in support.

Develop an evaluation form for each activity and also for the overall services provided by the center. The suggestions expressed on the form can provide new ideas for materials and other services.

An annual report reflecting the information obtained from the evaluation should be prepared and distributed to administrators, users, staff, and outside interested persons or groups. Such a comprehensive evaluation of functions will naturally explore a better means of maintaining and expanding your resource center.

Establishing and operating a teaching resource center requires careful planning and commitment on the part of the sponsoring groups and institutions. Realistic assessment of actually or potentially available resources and the need for the proposed services are essential ingredients. Concomitantly, a competent and dedicated professional and volunteer staff also determines the likelihood of success. We hope that the guidelines suggested here are helpful to educators and others considering such a venture.

Case Studies

Earlham College, Indiana. In the 1980s, Earlham College began to serve broader audiences in precollegiate education, business, and community affairs in Indiana. In 1986, at the request of the Indiana Department of Education, Earlham initiated a statewide program to encourage and help school systems internationalize their curricula, and teach Japanese language. In 1989, 15 school corporations had joined this effort and funding for two further years of work had been provided by the Indiana legislature.

In January 1987, the college established the Earlham Institute for Education on Japan as a channel for Japan-related activities. The Institute provides coordination and oversight of on-campus and outreach activities. Japanese Studies specialists on the faculty are named Institute Associates and provide the professional expertise required by various teaching and outreach programs. The Institute's primary objective is to provide sound content information and advice on all aspects of Japan and its history and culture. It serves as a clearinghouse and as a regional resource linking nationally-recognized Japan specialists with local and regional education, civic, and business groups which need assistance. Within the Institute is the U.S.-Japan Center for Business and Community Development. The Center coordinates and makes Institute personnel and resource materials available in response to local and regional needs.

With the mushrooming of transplanted Japanese business enterprises in the Midwest, there is an urgent need for appropriate material and other resources to aid in the process of international and intercultural interaction at the grassroots level. The Earlham College Institute for Education on Japan provides this service as part of its evolving role as a major resource base for the Midwest and the nation.

The College has utilized the expertise of its faculty and established programs in Japan to (1) introduce selected teams of Indiana educators to the latest materials and methods of teaching about history, social sciences, arts and literature in Japan, and (2) establish well-staffed and highly-integrated first-year Japanese language programs in each of the cooperating school districts. Earlham has conducted five-week summer institutes (two weeks of on-campus instruction followed by three weeks of study in Japan) in 1987, 1988, 1989 for five selected districts each year. The college also developed and administered workshops during each of these summers to train individuals with proficiency in Japanese to teach a first year language course at high schools in the fifteen participating corporations. A second goal in these workshops was to establish a state-wide network of Japanese language teachers and to develop a rich base of supporting resource materials for the classroom. This project has significant educational and economic potential for Indiana as it moves toward establishing itself as a national leader in education about Japan. It has been enthusiastically received by public school teachers, students, and administrators, and has received regional and national attention.

The project is now in a new phase of development with two years of program work remaining to consolidate gains already made and to extend the networks which have been established. State-wide conferences and workshops along with resource materials development are planned for this period. Language teaching programs are being extended and second-year language plans are being designed and implemented.

Evanston Township High School. Evanston Township High School (Illinois, District 202) is a comprehensive school for about 3000 students in grades nine through twelve. Over 250 certified staff and an equal number non-certified personnel are employed by the district. The high school recently established the Japan Teacher Center.

Facilities at the high school have been made available on request for functions scheduled by the Japan Teacher Center. In addition, an office and telephone have been provided. Business office (account management) expertise, duplicating services, audio-visual and media department cooperation, and public relations assistance in production of a brochure and press releases, have been offered by the district. The commitment of the institution has been crucial to the success of the outreach program.

Two staff development funds from the state of Illinois have been tapped for support of the Center's Global Seminar Series and for department presentations. In addition, the support and cooperation of the Japan Information Service of the Consulate General of Japan in Chicago has been valuable.

One of the major goals of the Japan Teacher Center at Evanston Township High School has been to extend global education to curriculum areas outside the History and Social Science Department. Moreover, since personal enrichment as well as professional growth directly related to routine responsibilities of staff members is beneficial, participation in activities not necessarily related to one's teaching is encouraged. Therefore, all programs sponsored by the center are open to all district staff members and those working in District 65, which serves Evanston's elementary students. Most are open to staff from neighboring districts. In addition, a Japanese feature-film discussion series, is open to the public free of charge. The center is also involved in promoting the introduction of a course in Japanese language, a vital component in promoting cultural understanding.

In addition to encouraging maximum participation in scheduled events, the staff and users work toward continuing financial support. Periodical volunteer clerical assistance and sporadic student aide arrangements have been helpful, but consistent, reliable, part-time support should be budgeted and incorporated into a center's operation. Because the current staff consists of only one person, installing a telephone answering machine was as vital as installing a telephone.

Attendance at programs sponsored by the Japan Teacher Center during 1990 was voluntary. Opportunities were provided for staff members after school, during evenings, and on Saturdays to participate in a variety of activities. Credit options with Northeastern Illinois University provided an incentive, but most participants have chosen to attend functions simply for enrichment. Programs were received enthusiastically by the nearly three hundred people who attended events. Most encouraging are ways in which creative people are incorporating consciousness of Japan in their courses. A chemistry teacher is using a Japanese periodic table and developing a bingo review game to prompt familiarity with Japanese symbols. English teachers have added Japanese legends to their mythology units. Recent activities included mini-lesson demonstrations, a feature film-discussion series, and a global seminar series.

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Developing Precollegiate Japanese Language Programs

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Second language learning has not recently been a priority in precollegiate education in the United States. Interest in the study of less common languages has been even more difficult to generate. However, the study of the Japanese language in elementary, middle, and secondary school has increased in the United States over the past decade. The increase has been, in part, the result of a growing understanding that to compete successfully with the Japanese and other economic superpowers, we must understand and be able to interact with their cultures. It has also grown from an understanding that the students in schools today must solve the problems that will need to be faced in an interdependent global community and that the study of language and its usage is essential to understanding how people live and function within and across cultures.

The increased interest in precollegiate Japanese language study has produced programs across the country that show much promise. The programs are, however, often the result of individual initiative and are developed without adequate support and without appropriate attention to curricular, instructional, and organizational issues. If the current interest in precollegiate Japanese language is to be used as productively as possible, a more comprehensive approach to a range of research and program development issues must be taken.

The status of precollegiate Japanese language education was the topic of a meeting sponsored by the United States-Japan Foundation in May 1988. The participants included teachers, linguists, representatives of state departments of education, and other professionals concerned with precollegiate Japanese language programs. The agenda covered a range of issues including national needs and goals, teacher recruitment and training, availability of instructional materials, standardized testing, pedagogical issues, and trends in program development at the state and local district levels. While the number and quality of programs has grown over the past few years, a comprehensive and systematic mechanism for planning and assessment across this range of issues does not exist.

A recent study by the National Foreign Language Center reports that in 1990 precollegiate Japanese language was taught in approximately 860 schools in the United States. Of those, approximately 40 programs were elementary, 55 were middle or junior high, and 770 were high school. The courses in more than 280 of the schools were teledistance programs. The majority of programs were in states where there is an increasing presence of Japanese and other Asian immigrants, where there is a significant increase in economic ties to Japan, or in some cases, where there has been a significant other culture study program in the school curriculum. Regionally, the largest concentration of those programs was in the Pacific coastal region. The state of Washington had the largest number, with more than 105 such programs.

The identified programs are quite varied according to how they were developed, the nature of the educational programs in the states where they exist, and the nature of the communities they serve. Interviews conducted with second language consultants in a sample of those states suggested that common areas of concern are: (1) program goals, (2) the selection and placement of teachers, (3) teacher training and certification, (4) curriculum and instructional planning, and (5) the identification of appropriate teaching materials. A brief overview of those areas is included below.

Program Goals

Comments of the group meeting at the United States-Japan Foundation in 1988 represent the range of perspectives on goals for Japanese language programs. Jackson Bailey, of Earlham College, suggested goals address three tasks: 1) to add to the pool of Japanese language specialists; 2) to build Japanese language into the larger context of global education; and 3) to provide practical tools for those going to live in Japan. David Arlington, of the Oregon State Department of Education, thought a goals matrix should address both program and student goals with subcategories of language and culture under each. Susan Mastro, a North Carolina high school teacher, reported three long term teaching goals: 1) to awaken interest in the larger Japanese studies field; 2) to have her students understand the Japanese culture within the context of language learning; and 3) to enable those who would continue their study to make a smooth transition to university study programs. Carol Bond, from the Center for Improvement of Teaching of Japanese Language and Culture in High School, felt that the overall goal of Japanese language instruction should be to insure an initially usable proficiency that would cut across all categories of students. The debate over goals for Japanese language programs seems to be focused on whether programs should have language proficiency as the major goal or whether goals for initial language study programs should include an emphasis on culture integrated into the basic language study.

Selection and Placement of Teachers

Two persistent problems in the selection and placement of Japanese teachers in precollegiate language programs are that native speakers of Japanese often do not meet the requirements for state certification, while non-native teachers who are certified may not be as strong in Japanese language competencies. In other words, native speakers may be lacking in teaching skills and locally trained teachers may be lacking in Japanese language skills. Four categories of skills need to be developed: (1) language proficiency, (2) language pedagogy, (3) descriptive linguistics (Professor Eleanor Jorden's "fact" component), and (4) descriptive cultural linguistics (the "fact" component applied to culture).

Several existing programs offer a range of solutions to offset needs in either language competency, teaching skills, or both. The state of Indiana, for example, has approximately 50 schools offering precollegiate Japanese language programs. There are Japanese language teacher certification programs in place at Indiana University, Earlham College, and Ball State University. The certification program at Ball State, under the direction of Rita Gardiol, requires teachers currently teaching a foreign language to spend a summer in intensive study of the Japanese language and the following summer in Japan. Teachers in the Japanese language teacher training program at the East Asian Center at the University of Wisconsin are required to complete at least a minor in Japanese language, as well as the required teacher training competencies, pass a proficiency test in Japanese language, and spend time in Japan. A program in Iowa and one currently being developed in North Carolina are somewhat unique in that teachers are recruited in Japan and provided additional training and orientation before assuming classroom teaching responsibilities in the United States.

Teacher Training and Certification

The problems currently associated with the selection and placement of teachers are overlapping with and give direction to the development of teacher training and certification programs. Most states with Japanese language certifications require a minimum of 24 semester hours (the equivalent of a minor) in Japanese language and culture for initial certification. In addition, Japanese language teachers must complete the required teacher training program. The program at the East Asian Center at the University of Wisconsin, cited above, stands as an example of such teacher preparation/certification programs. In reality, however, many of the teachers currently teaching in precollegiate programs have not had the benefit of such balanced preparation programs. Provisional certifications are often granted in many states.

Curriculum and Instructional Planning

Some states have state approved curriculum guides. In other states, curriculum is a local option and is, therefore, locally developed. In those states with established curricula in second language instruction, curriculum guides have most often been developed for the more commonly taught languages, usually French, German, and Spanish. What is reasonable to expect of student achievement may be quite different in the more commonly taught and easier learned languages. In cases where there is no prescribed curriculum, the textbook chosen for the course often becomes the curriculum. Critical questions for curriculum planners at the outset are: (1) what is the purpose of Japanese language instruction and (2) how should Japanese language programs be organized, implemented, and evaluated to guarantee that the goals of the program are met..

How precollegiate Japanese language programs are delivered instructionally is, of course, a function of the goals of the program. Several important pedagogical issues which initially emerged at the university level are now being brought into question for K-12 levels. One basic consideration is the relation between factual analysis of the language (the "fact" component) and actual exercise to build proficiency in using the language (the "act" component). Professor Eleanor Jorden has argued that at the university level, training in the "fact" component is best managed by individuals who are thoroughly trained in the analysis of the target language and culture, and are able to describe it in terms that are meaningful to the student, whereas training in the "act" component is best managed by individuals who are native speakers of Japanese and can act as models of the language and culture. For younger students, whose natural language acquisition mechanisms remain somewhat more intact and whose meta-linguistic awareness (or use of terminology to describe the structure of language) remains correspondingly low, the issue becomes how much "facting" is necessary or even possible in the curriculum. For these students, an inductive approach to describing language structure may obviate the need for a complicated meta-linguistic framework of description. Also, given the time it takes for students to gain familiarity with new material, the degree of proficiency that should be required of students before proceeding to new material becomes an issue.

Another important pedagogical issue is the position of the Japanese written language within the curriculum, in terms of the proportion of time that should be devoted to reading and writing, and the degree of time lag, if any, between initial exposure to spoken language and subsequent exposure to standard Japanese orthography such as, hiragana, katakana, and kanji, as they would be used in a standard transcription of spoken Japanese. Further issues include the appropriate balance of culture study in relation to language, and even the very basic question of what kind of language should be taught (for example, is it optimal to spend several months teaching the complex usage patterns of an adult system of honorifics to students at the K-12 level?)

Identification of Appropriate Teaching Materials

Although some materials are available for teaching precollegiate Japanese language, the selection is still meager in comparison to the more commonly taught languages. In this section, after considering some criteria for materials evaluation, a review is provided for some of the more popular Japanese language texts.

It is often noted that Japanese is "more difficult" for English speakers to learn than more commonly taught languages, such as Spanish or French. While these (Indo-European) languages hold many structures of grammar and discourse in common (not to mention a rich lexicon of cognates), the Japanese language derives from an unrelated linguistic history. Thus, students cannot rely upon similarities in English to provide a foothold for learning Japanese. The pedagogical consequence of this is that anything and everything that is to be learned must be sufficiently taught. "Presentation" must be thorough: e.g., new patterns must be introduced in a way that the students can understand, then "massaged" through appropriate exercises, and finally reviewed so that students maintain their acquired skills. Equally, "progression" must be systematic; simple constructions must be presented before complex constructions, new patterns must build upon those already learned, and new material must not be introduced in "gulps" that are too large.

Some of the university texts often used in secondary programs include *Introduction to Modern Japanese* by Mizutani and Mizutani, *Learn Japanese: New College Text* by Young and Nakajima-Okano, *Japanese Now* by Ester Sato, and *Japanese: The Spoken Language* by Jorden and Noda. *Hello in Japanese* by Keiko Inoue is suitable for precollegiate programs. The language is appropriate and relevant to the junior high level, but will also work with programs in grades K-6 and 10-12. The text is interactive and engaging, and the accompanying workbook extends the text to provide a comparatively rich experience for students. A more recent book, *Nihongo: Beginning Japanese* (Parts I and II) has been specifically developed for use with secondary programs.

Materials appropriate for elementary and middle/junior high school are sparse. However, *Resources for Teachers of High School Japanese* (See Select Bibliography - Center for Improvement of Teaching of Japanese Language and Culture in High School/CITJ) also lists resources which are appropriate for elementary and middle school programs. The publication includes an annotated listing of textbooks, supplementary materials, vocabulary resources, dictionaries, games, cultural and audio-visual materials. Additionally, resources for elementary, middle, and senior high school teachers are reviewed in the *Newsletter of the Japanese Language Teachers Network* (a publication of CITJ).

Noteworthy Programs

The listing below describes noteworthy programs. It is representative, but not by any means an exhaustive sampling of exemplary operational precollegiate programs, teacher training programs, alternative delivery programs, and programs that show promise of network building.

A K-12 Japanese language program was instituted in Wake County, North Carolina in 1982. The development of that program over the past eight years may be typical of the development of less commonly taught language programs. Teachers working in that program have identified concerns in three areas. At present, the state has no certification program for Japanese language teachers. This causes problems in recruitment and retention of teachers and places the professionalism of teachers at risk. Secondly, the teachers felt isolated and expressed a need for networking among themselves and other teachers of less commonly taught languages. A third concern was for articulation of the program. Presently, classes at the elementary level cope with multiple ages and levels of competence. The middle school program was thought to be too repetitious of the elementary program. A smoother transition is needed from one grade level to the next and from the elementary school to the middle school as well as from the middle school to the high school.

Notable among the total immersion summer programs is the Total Immersion Japanese Language and Culture Camp held this past year at the Pack Forest Camp, at the foot of Mt. Rainier. The camp is sponsored by the Japan-America Society of the State of Washington. The program consisted of two, one-week sessions with more than 40 students in each session. The mornings of each week were devoted to Japanese language study and the afternoons to a variety of Japanese cultural activities. The total immersion camp provided a valuable opportunity for teachers to collaborate, and it provided students with an increased motivation to learn the language.

Teledistance second language programs impose obvious limitations on language learning. However, the high school Japanese language program produced by the Nebraska Department of Education and the Nebraska Educational Telecommunications Network through the Satellite Resources Consortium is attractive among alternative delivery programs. The course is designed to develop students' ability to use Japanese in common social situations. Instruction is developed primarily in Japanese and is delivered Monday, Wednesday, and Friday via satellite with students from six different schools on the phone to interact during each lesson. Tuesdays and Thursdays are reserved for students to apply acquired vocabulary in twenty-minute telephone conversations with native Japanese speakers. Students also participate in a variety of speaking, listening, reading and writing activities with their local classmates. There is a tuition of $150 and a $25 materials fee. High schools in 22 different states are now participating in the program.

The Japanese Language Teacher Training Program provided through the Center for Asian Studies at Georgia Southwestern College is a program which might be instructive for training of precollegiate Japanese language teachers. The program was established in 1988 through a cooperative arrangement with the Hokkaido International Foundation and Georgia Southwestern College. Japanese graduate students are brought to Georgia Southwestern for an intensive training program. The training is two months of intensive study, focusing on how to teach Japanese language and on various aspects of American culture. Following the training, the students move to institutions of higher education throughout the United States, where they pursue their own studies with a scholarship in exchange for teaching Japanese for their host institutions.

The Exchange in Teaching Program at East Carolina University extends this concept of training native teachers to work in precollegiate Japanese language programs. The program is funded, in part, by the United States-Japan Foundation, and is being developed through the North Carolina Japan Center East in cooperation with the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction and participating local education agencies. Ten teachers will be brought from Japan to teach in different North Carolina school systems. The teachers will participate in a one-month intensive training program that will include an orientation to U.S. schools and culture, an overview of the North Carolina Standard Course of Study, and the newly developed curriculum in Japanese as a second language, as well as effective teacher training. Weekend sessions conducted each month over the two-year developmental period will extend the initial training. The curriculum for the elementary, middle, and secondary school levels is being planned cooperatively by the project staff, representatives of the State Department of Public Instruction, and contact persons from each of the participating school systems, with the assistance of the instructional staff of the Japanese language program at North Carolina State University.

The Project for the Development of Curricular Guidelines in the High Schools and a College Board Achievement Test was recently funded by the National Endowment for the Humanities. The task force is a project of the National Foreign Language Center and the College Board, and is chaired by J. Marshall Unger from the University of Hawaii. The first major product of the task force will be a set of curricular guidelines for precollegiate Japanese language education. Following the development of the curricular guidelines, a test development team will produce an instrument to assess achievement. The instrument is scheduled to be available in June, 1993.

Clearly, continuing research is needed to address appropriate program goals. Alternatives for selection, placement, training, and certification of teachers must be developed and assessed. On-going program development and research can facilitate improvements in curriculum planning and instructional delivery. Each of these will, in turn, generate opportunities for identification as well as development and refinement of more suitable instructional materials. The Japanese Language Teachers Network (organized through the Center for Improvement of Teaching of Japanese Language and Culture in High School) and special purpose endeavors such as the Project for the Development of Curricular Guidelines in the High Schools and a College Board Achievement Test are examples of the type of collaboration which will be critical to the future and success of precollegiate Japanese language instruction in the United States.

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Effective Study Tours: Predeparture, On-Site, and Follow-Through Activities

Lynn Parisi and Duane Christian

Study of a significantly different culture is much enriched by a guided experience in the country. This is not to say that vicarious experiences such as reading, viewing slides, or using films and videos have no value, but those media presentations lack the depth of actually being there. Therefore, it is extremely beneficial for educators who plan to teach about little-understood places such as Japan to gain as much first-hand knowledge as can be reasonably obtained. The teacher of early U.S. history can gain much cognitive and affective comprehension by visiting Williamsburg, Philadelphia, or Salem. Similarly, U.S. teachers who are naive regarding Asia and Japan will profit greatly from living in the cities and homes of Japanese people—even if only for a brief period.

Projects which aim their training at teachers and educator teams who will be able to affect many other educators must surely consider using study tours to give the depth and fuller flavor that curricular leaders and change agents need. These key people require experiences of power and depth which will help them to communicate their comprehension of ideas and events with greater directness than reading and media alone would equip them to do.

Study-Tour Goals

Planning a tour requires that the project director and staff spend some time and effort to develop goals. The selection of sites and itinerary will more logically grow out of the perception of needs related to desired outcomes. For example, a program aimed at a very narrow, homogeneous group would necessarily receive training and experiences of a limited range, as compared to programs with a broader, more general focus.

Time spent in setting goals specifically and clearly also will be repaid when communicating the program to prospective participants, conducting the U.S. site training, and chosing among the many possible tour events. We recommend that the tour leader go to Japan him/herself, if financially feasible, and visit a number of the prospective sites. A study tour is necessarily a *sample*, not the total possible contacts, so much preliminary investigation will be important. If the leader cannot go in advance, then an alternative would be to contact various Japan programs to obtain copies of itineraries to see the range of possibilities.

The director and staff might begin the goal-establishing process by considering what outcomes they expect from the project, then consider how the tour activities can be arranged to help achieve those outcomes. From this general perspective, a logical step is to tie each broad goal to a narrower *enabling* sort of tour objective by asking questions such as "In what ways will this specific event help us to satisfy a goal? How can we plan for optimal learning and retention from this activity? How can we raise the likeliness of the transfer of this activity into teaching content by the trainee?" These and other similar questions will doubtless assist the project leaders to plan a trip which will maximize appropriate outcomes.

Setting the tour goals will also provide impetus to consider some ways to maximize learning by gathering data, recording perceptions in some relatively permanent way, interacting substantively with other participants of the tour group, debriefing procedures, following-through after the tour, and monitoring the infusion of the tour knowledge into participants' curriculum concerns. The tour director(s) will then be prepared to: plan input on the above topics and include some instruction on use of cameras, video equipment, journal-keeping; establish some procedures for insuring discussion following highly significant events; design questionnaires/feedback sheets for pertinent tour stages; plan for follow-up visits to participants' schools or some means to ascertain the degree of curriculum effect obtained; and begin to consider newsletters to keep the trainees informed and energized. In essence, this sort of goal setting will enhance long range planning and, at the same time, help to insure more systematic learning while on-site. As the goal-setting and consideration of accompanying questions occur, project staff can make decisions as to specific potentialities. Whether a group in Tokyo will visit, for example, Ueno Park, Tsukiji market, Nissan-Zama plant, the stock market, kabuki, a flower arranging demonstration, a martial arts school, or form small groups and take subway excursions, these choices will be more quickly and easily made from the perspective of project goals.

Setting goals at an early stage will aid in choosing tour facilitators. Organizations such as the International Hospitality and Conference Service Association (IHCSA) and the Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE) are excellent choices for organizing tours because of their broad experience in dealing with non-Japanese visitors, their qualified staffs, and their willingness to customize the itinerary to meet a group's needs (See the Select Bibliography for these and other addresses). The project staff can knowledgeably request certain experiences which will meet specific goals, and can better choose among alternatives when the facilitators produce a suggested itinerary.

Selecting Participants

Team composition and selection are essential considerations in a successful study tour, affecting both the short- and long-term accomplishments of the program. It is important to link team composition to the stated goals of the project; for example, some configurations of educators may be better able to accomplish curriculum change at the state or school-district level than others; a completely different configuration may be best suited to curriculum development.

The regional projects in the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network have adopted a variety of ways to configure teams for their summer seminars in Japan, depending on project objectives. The experience of these projects as well as other educational change efforts strongly suggests that selecting teams of educators representing either state or school districts within a state may strengthen follow-through efforts by participants. It appears evident that when participants have a colleague or partner with whom they can work, they are more likely to fulfill follow-through commitments.

If a project goal is to institutionalize school district curriculum change, teams composed of a cross-section of school district personnel are obviously well suited. Indeed, a number of the regional Japan projects have achieved success with this team model, particularly those projects working with states that have district- rather than state-mandated curricula. In this case, the study-tour participants might be selected as teams of two to four educators representing a single school district. A strong model is that of school district teams including one district-level administrator and two or three teachers representing grade levels where the focus country is taught in the social studies curriculum. In such a team configuration, the district-level administrator provides critical district support for efforts the team will undertake, while the classroom teachers provide practical experience with the curriculum content, as well as the vehicle for getting things done at the classroom and school-building level. A typical school-district team might include a district social studies coordinator and three sixth-grade social studies teachers. Their task would be to revise the district's sixth-grade world cultures unit on Japan. An alternative school district team model might be composed of the district curriculum coordinator and teachers representing the three grades where Japan is taught as part of social studies—perhaps grades 1, 7, and 10. In defining the teams appropriate for the project, it is important to establish parameters of team configuration while still allowing enough flexibility for teams to reflect the realities and needs of their school districts.

An alternative team model well-suited to both low-population states and those with statewide mandated curriculum is state teams, consisting of the state department of education social studies specialist, one or two teacher educators from state universities, and one or two classroom teachers from grade levels where the country is mandated in the state social studies curriculum.

There are advantages and shortcomings to all the approaches outlined above, which must be weighed by each project in light of its own goals and objectives. For example, selecting project participants as individuals offers the greatest flexibility for both the project and the applicants. Applicants are not at a disadvantage if they cannot put a team together because of small district faculty, and so on. Nor is the project susceptible to the repercussions of accepting a team with a weak link. On the other hand, the weakness of this approach may lie in the follow-through. Each participant is a "lone ranger," on his or her own trying to make changes and to get other teacher or administration acceptance and support in the school district, a factor which may significantly limit each participant's accomplishments outside of his or her own classroom.

Adopting a team approach to participant selection entails its own strengths and weaknesses. For example, when soliciting school district teams, the project may have little or no control over team composition. The project may become somewhat dependent for success on the internal group dynamics of each school district or state team—how compatible they are, how well they work together, and so on. For this reason, it is important to look for a strong team leader—a state- or district-level curriculum coordinator with the authority and commitment to require and support follow-through by other team members. The strength of the team approach may lie in follow-through—a team is more likely to garner the group effort or critical mass to accomplish the tasks to achieve change at a district or state level.

Whatever configuration a project selects for its study-tour members, the project should rely on a formal application process. Through the application process, it is important not only to determine the personal and professional rationale and commitment for participation by the applicant, but to make the goals and objectives, format, and expectations of the project clear to those applying. The application form should provide information on how the study-tour travel program will be run and what participants can expect in terms of format, travel conditions, customs, and behaviors. It should require applicants to conceptualize realistic projects or plans for what they want to accomplish as a result of participation, and it should measure cross-cultural and interpersonal skills—the ability of applicants to cope physically and emotionally with the stress of group and foreign travel. Interviews, if feasible, can facilitate selections. The individuals selected for participation in the study tour will have a significant impact on the success of the project, both in terms of how enjoyable the study tour is and in how successful follow-through efforts are. Contact any of the Network projects listed at the end of this book for sample application forms.

Orientation

A key element of training is to prepare a project's participants to gain maximal comprehension from the tour. If the program is for teachers, the tour goals will certainly include contacts that relate to the lessons, units, or other curricular aspects which have been designed or planned. For whatever group, a consideration should be how to equip the prospective travelers to function with low levels of stress while in Japan. It follows logically, then, to give direct training:

in greetings and some minimal vocabulary; in food differences and manners; in the importance of the tea ceremony; in viewing sports; in taking a Japanese bath (home and public); in visiting temples and shrines; in the etiquette of homevisits/stays; and the delicacies of gift exchanging. Such knowledge and skill-building will give the visitors confidence which will greatly free them from anxieties which might unduly hamper them while in Japan. These aspects will not prevent culture shock while in the target country, but will lessen the severity of shock when surprising events occur.

Orientation sessions should include the wisdom of previous travelers via face-to-face explanations or journal excerpts on important tour events/features. Also, slides, videotapes, and recordings can supplement the more direct words of previous participants and program leaders.

Most groups training U.S. educators for a Japan tour will be able to locate Japanese people living nearby who will often be happy to share their knowledge, artifacts, and skills with the prospective travelers. Demonstrations of sumi-e, a tea ceremony, aikido, kendo, woodblock prints, Japanese foods, and other related topics will both enhance the training and serve as an introduction to these same elements of life when they are in Japan. Indeed, possible teaming with such persons upon return can result in richer, more authentic sharing with the students or community to whom the educators will reach out.

The orientation should include reading about Japan and its sociocultural elements. Robert Christopher's *The Japanese Mind*, Chie Nakane's *Japanese Society*, Edwin Reischauer's *Japanese Today: Change and Continuity* and Lucien Ellington's *Japan: Tradition and Change* (1990 and highly readable) are among the general books which participants might sample. There should also be materials on the more specific, detailed topics related to school subjects or to the individual interests of participants. English-language periodicals such as *Look Japan*, *Japan Pictorial*, or *Japan Today* also provide breadth, though usually little depth.

This reading is vital to training, but most Japan programs have come to realize that the orientation aspect is more effective when there is a dynamic, hands-on directness. Practicing calculating the exchange rate, finding one's way on a Tokyo subway map and role playing a ticket purchase, greeting each other daily with Japanese expressions, bowing, removing shoes, and using polite expressions are examples of an "action" orientation. This active mode can also encourage persons to explore Japan: people who have role played using the Tokyo subway are more apt to try the subway early on to go from the hotel in Shinjuku to the Ginza or Roppongi; those who have practiced the hand clap and coin toss for a Shinto shrine will more likely participate in or witness a misogi (ceremonial cleansing of the body) ritual. Also, it is very important for the tour leader(s) and other staff people to enter wholeheartedly into the orientation activities. As we take on new behaviors or try to understand ways which seem different, it is encouraging to do so with other people who are much like us. The social effect of someone else also learning is powerful and will aid the participants in preparing for the full potential of the study tour.

The Summer Study Tour

The Network projects have identified six issues to consider in planning and conducting a study tour for educators. These are: 1) selecting and working with a program liaison in the host country; 2) developing the itinerary and scheduling; 3) budgeting and staffing; 4) planning and conducting effective homestay experiences; 5) team communication on-site; and 6) processing the experience with participants. Each issue is discussed briefly below.

Selecting and Working with Program Liaisons in the Host Country. Close consultation with an on-site coordinator, who can handle the nuts and bolts of scheduling, making hotel and travel reservations, and identifying and securing speakers and activities can be invaluable in making a study tour run smoothly. There are a variety of profit and nonprofit organizations available to provide such services in Japan. These range from the Japan Travel Bureau (JTB), the International Hospitality and Conference Service Association (IHCSA), to private educational organizations such as the Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE), located in New York, and Tokyo's International House, to small independent travel consulting organizations, such as Programs for Academic and Cultural Exchange (PACE), located in Tokyo and Yokohama. Sister state, sister city, and sister school personnel can also be invaluable in making arrangements, securing speakers, and planning activities on-site. Once again, it is important to assess project goals, expectations, and budget, to make these criteria very clear to the on-site coordinator, and to select an on-site coordinator who can work compatibly with these. In negotiating and planning the itinerary with the on-site coordinator, careful communication can become an important issue. When working with an organization located in the host country, cultural differences can often exist in notions of the "ideal" travel-study experience. For example, whereas we, as U.S. educators, may envision a highly experiential, interactive, or individually-focused program, the Japanese are often more accustomed to and comfortable with "package" or tour-bus format tours which tend to be less interactive. Thus, JTB may be well-suited for arranging hotels, ground travel, and some tours, but it is strictly a tourist organization and will be able to provide few "up-close and personal" experiences. Other organizations, such as CIEE and PACE have considerable experience dealing with U.S. educational groups. They share a similar experiential philosophy, and will work closely with project personnel to create "custom-designed" programs.

Study-tour organizers should begin planning and scheduling six to nine months prior to the tour. Most consulting organizations that help plan study tours require this amount of preparation time. For example, CIEE prefers to begin work eight months in advance of the study tour by having the study-tour institution complete a program outline. They then proceed to a budget proposal and, upon acceptance of the budget, begin work on a tentative itinerary and travel arrangements. When working with a Japanese organization to plan a study tour, relationships tend to develop over time. Personal contacts are very important and should be utilized whenever possible. Personal relationships made through business connections, former exchange students or teachers, pen pals, or sister city and sister state connections can provide valuable entrees to unique experiences in the host country, if approached in a careful and sensitive manner.

Planning the Itinerary. Planning an itinerary that provides unique, genuine, and worthwhile experiences that meet participants' needs, while also addressing project goals may be among the most challenging aspects of conducting a successful study tour. In planning, study-tour staff must attend to content objectives by scheduling an overall program that presents an accurate picture of the country by offering a range of content focii and settings. Study-tour leaders, working with on-site coordinators, face a challenge in providing an itinerary that accurately educates study-tour participants to the diversity of the country they are studying. This should include providing experiences which reflect geographic diversity, urban and rural contrasts, ethnic and socio-economic diversity, and traditional-contemporary contrasts, as examples.

In addition, the itinerary should attend to learning styles and group dynamics. For example, a constant challenge voiced by regional Japan project study-tour leaders is that of achieving a satisfactory balance between formal, project-sponsored activities and free time. While project leaders may be committed to scheduled activities as the heart of the program—essential in providing a core of knowledge and experience—they also recognize that such activities may not meet the personal learning styles, or academic, or cultural interests of all project participants. There is often a tension between formally scheduled group activities, the raison d'etre of the program, and time for participants to pursue their own interests. While both are essential to a successful program, it seems that on two to three week tours, it is very difficult to provide ample amounts of both kinds of time to everyone's satisfaction. The regional Japan projects have adopted a variety of strategies for addressing this balance. All try to provide a range of large and small group experiences through a choice of concurrent activities, such as elementary or secondary school visits or small-group neighborhood study tours, and optional activities, such as the selection of two out of three art lessons or one of two cultural performances.

In providing free time, some of the projects offer a half-day of free time in each locale; others, a completely free day at intervals throughout the trip; still others intersperse group meals with independent meals. Some study tours have very tightly scheduled programs with a minimum of free time. In any case, it is important to make project expectations and demands on individuals very clear from the outset. Participants should know before embarking on the study tour that they are agreeing to a group program and scheduled activities, if, in fact, that is the format of the study tour. They should be given some reasonable expectation of the amount of free time they will have and what they might realistically accomplish in terms of a personal agenda during that time. Project leaders might want to work with individual participants prior to departure to help them plan activities for their free time and, if they have a substantial personal agenda, to suggest that they stay after the study tour is over to pursue their own interests.

To further attend to the different learning styles of participants, study-tour leaders may also want to balance activities to include learning in formal settings, such as through lectures, demonstrations, and tours, as well as more informal or interactive settings, such as small and large group discussions, hands-on lessons, and one-on-one or equal ratio activities with Japanese counterparts. Examples of the latter might include teaming participants individually or in small groups with Japanese partners to explore different neighborhoods in a city, arranging a night out with Japanese business people or educators, or homestays.

Budgeting. Most study tours, whether paid for by participating educators or by a granting institution, are working within tight budgets. A useful guide for study-tour planners in establishing a budget for their trip is available from the U.S. government. The Fulbright-Hays Group Projects Maintenance Allowance, issued each year, provides per diem rates for major cities in every country and is extremely helpful in estimating the costs of a study-tour program. Some liaison organizations, such as CIEE, will assume much of the responsibility for budgeting a study tour. CIEE consults with the institution sponsoring the study tour to identify budget parameters, then submits for approval to the institution a budget for the entire program. The study-tour institution essentially subcontracts to CIEE to handle the program within the agreed upon budget. In working with on-site liaisons in Japan, it may be very important to keep in very close communication about study-tour expenses and to keep the liaison well-informed on budget limits.

In budgeting for a study tour, the sponsoring institution must plan for the following expenses: hotel, food, individual and group ground transportation (e.g., times people will get to places by public transport, times the tour will have to charter busses, etc.), walkaround money (e.g. entrance fees to museums, parks, shrines, temples, cultural events); honoraria or fees for speakers and guides, and interpreters. Other major and minor expenses may be particular to a given country. For example, in Japan, meeting space is always at a premium. Meeting rooms must often be rented by the hour or day, and the rental rates are generally very high. Gift giving is integral to professional interaction and courtesy in Japan. The cost of gifts for speakers, hosts, and other key contributors to the study tour must be taken into consideration in figuring the program budget. As a final example, because of space limitations on Japanese trains, baggage is generally shipped separately through a private transport service, the cost of which must be figured in the overall tour budget.

Staffing the study tour is closely tied to budget issues. Many of the regional Japan projects have relied on two staff people to share the burdens of the study tour, designating one person to administer the tour, another to provide content expertise on the country being visited. An interpreter may be necessary on a full-or part-time basis, depending on the skills of and demands on the staff.

Homestays. Homestays offer a unique opportunity to meet Japanese people, learn about families and lifestyles, and experience Japan independently of a large group. Homestays can also cause a great deal of stress for participants for many of the same reasons that they are so valuable—that is, that participants are on their own for several days with a Japanese family. Careful planning can alleviate much of the stress and pave the way for an optimum experience. There are several items to address in planning homestays with the project's on-site coordinator or other liaison. Project staff should ascertain how homestay families are being identified. For example, does the city chamber of commerce or tourist bureau sponsor a homestay program? If so, will your homestay hosts be people who are more or less "professionals"? Are they offering a "packaged" or more spontaneous experience; are the homestay hosts paid for their hospitality or are they doing it out of personal interest; do the host families include someone who can speak English? Answers to such questions may significantly influence the experience study-tour participants have.

Project staff can contribute to matching homestay hosts and guests effectively by requesting that hosts and study-tour participants develop brief biographies in which they identify such things as family size, members, ages; personal hobbies and interests; allergies, pets, and so on. These biographies will assist in matching hosts and guests based on some shared interest or experience. Advance planning to allow host and guest to exchange a letter and perhaps photos will help make all parties more comfortable when they meet.

Project staff should plan to provide a homestay orientation for participants and insure that the on-site coordinator will do the same for hosts. The orientation might include an introduction to basic household customs and etiquette, such as bath taking, typical foods, mealtime etiquette, and gift giving; ideas about things to take to start conversations, such as scrapbooks, photo books of state or town, samples of student work or photos and artifacts of school or one's home and family; what to do in case of illness or other problems. Suggestions on how to make the most of a homestay as a learning experience can also be very valuable; for example, observation techniques, articulation of topics participants would like to learn about, identification of appropriate and inappropriate topics of conversation and photo subjects, and so on.

In preparing for homestays, several of the regional Japan projects have had excellent success conducting a pre-homestay get-acquainted party, held one evening before the homestays are to begin. Enabling hosts and guests to become acquainted in an informal, neutral setting surrounded by friends relieves a lot of anxiety for all concerned. Hosts and guests have a chance to discuss plans for the homestay, make arrangements, and finalize or alter activities as appropriate.

If the itinerary allows, project staff may also want to schedule two separate homestays in different locations—perhaps one urban and one rural to enable participants to compare and contrast their experiences. Such a dual experience tends to dispel stereotypes or generalizations which participants might logically form as the result of a single experience.

As with all study-tour activities, debriefing homestays contributes to the overall experience. Group discussions in which participants share their experiences may help participants realize the extent of diversity across families in this society and question stereotypes of the "typical" family. The Rocky Mountain Region Japan Project has produced a useful curriculum unit *A Look at Japanese Culture Through the Family,* containing case studies of homestay experiences. These recountings have a remarkable diversity which will impress on the participants that Japanese host families are not totally alike.

Team Communication. Ultimately, participant satisfaction with a study tour may rest as much on the ease with which the program proceeds and on positive group dynamics as on the sum of planned activities and spontaneous experiences. Travel in a foreign country, with a large group, can be very stressful for many people. Uncertainty about travel arrangements, accommodations, and independent and group activities can all contribute to individual travel stress, which in turn can significantly influence individual satisfaction, group dynamics, and the smooth progress of the program. Likewise, developing a system of effective communication during the program can contribute significantly to participant satisfaction and the ultimate success of the study tour.

Often dealing with last minute changes or data, tour staff face a challenge in keeping participants accurately informed. Regional Japan projects conducting summer study tours have identified several methods of facilitating team communication and positive group dynamics which we can recommend to others undertaking similar programs for the first time. One mechanism is the distribution of detailed daily or two-day schedules, including special items of note such as proper dress, details of ground transportation and addresses of activities so that if a participant gets separated from the group he can still reach his destination. Routine morning or evening meetings enable staff to make late-breaking announcements, address participant questions, and so on. Some projects have successfully used a portable posting board, attached to the project leaders hotel door, on which they announce any last-minute schedule changes or other important information. Other projects route communication through key people. For example, study tours consisting of school district or state teams may route notices and announcements through team leaders, asking these leaders to share the responsibility of disseminating information. Still other projects recommend sharing responsibility among all participants by having a rotating "drill sergeant" for the day, a participant responsible for the day's agenda. This person acts as a contact point and information resource on the day's activities for all participants and assists the project leaders by facilitating meetings, making introductions, and presenting gifts at meetings, and so on.

Processing the Experience. To make the most of a study tour, participants need time and a structure which encourages them to reflect upon or process the barrage of experiences and cultural data to which they are exposed in such a rapid-fire manner. Regular team discussion sessions, scheduled every three or four days, are one way of meeting this need. Some sessions might focus on participants' observations or discoveries, while other sessions might take the form of trouble shooting, providing a forum for participants to discuss problems related to culture shock, or constructively enabling them to voice criticisms of accommodations or program activities, or iron out problems related to group travel. Techniques to begin such discussion include asking participants to share the high and low points of the previous few days; to comment on something they learned which they would like to incorporate into their teaching, and so on.

Large-group discussions are particularly valuable early in the program, when culture shock may be an issue. At least one of the regional Japan projects conducts a small-group orientation activity on the first day in Japan. In groups of four, participants spend the day with a Japanese escort, learning to make phone calls, order in a restaurant, maneuver the Tokyo subway and train system, buy stamps, and so on. The goal of this initial activity is to instill in all participants the confidence that they can function in the country. Following such an activity a group discussion might focus not only on what skills participants feel they acquired and what insecurities they still feel, but also on what they learned about the culture. Participants may also value discussion sessions following particularly intensive or emotional activities such as homestays, a visit to Hiroshima Peace Park, or a free day when everyone has gone off on his/her own.

The study-tour format can further facilitate individual reflection and processing through such mechanisms as evaluation instruments and a group journal. One project has adapted an on-site evaluation form to include not only comments on program administration, activities, and accommodations, but also several personal reflection questions, gauging how information can be used in teaching, how preconceived notions are changing, and so on.

A team journal encourages individual reflection while providing a team project that contributes to group identity. Begun on the first day in the country, the team journal is passed from one participant to the next throughout the trip, with each person recording the day's experiences in his/her own style. Upon their return home, all participants receive a copy of this collective experience of the study tour.

Debriefing and Follow-Through

Most study tours establish follow-through expectations of their participants as an initial condition of participation. Such responsibilities might include curriculum development for the classroom or school district, training fellow teachers in the district, or conducting statewide awareness activities. An ideal outcome for any study tour is for the project to take on a life of its own through team or individual participant efforts back home.

Whatever the expectation, the extent and effectiveness of follow-through activities is positively affected by strong support from project staff. Typically, the regional Japan projects have conducted follow-through programs consisting of some combination of "debriefing" workshops, site visits, annual "reunion" workshops, and regular correspondence.

"Debriefing" Workshop. Many of the regional Japan projects conduct a debriefing weekend workshop for their study-tour participants approximately one or two months following their return home. Such workshops provide the opportunity for participants to share resources acquired independently in the host country, identify methods for translating their personal travel experiences into effective classroom lessons, and solidify their plans for sharing their experiences with other educators and the community. A typical debriefing workshop agenda might include time for sharing slides and artifacts among study-tour participants; conducting a summative evaluation on the study tour; formulating or discussing plans and topics for developing or enriching curriculum on the focus country with information and resources gained through the trip, learning or enhancing teacher training techniques, planning prototype teacher training workshops and community-focused presentations. An important goal for project staff should be to emphasize commitment to alumni and clarify the range of things the project can do to help them. For example, project staff can help in identifying/securing resources and resource people, and guiding alumni toward additional funding.

Long-Term Follow-Through. Continuing contact with and support to participants can help them maintain their commitment to and enthusiasm for promised follow-through activities and even help them go far beyond their original plans.

Depending on the project's operating budget, such support can take a variety of forms. Many study-tour programs require a written report of activities conducted by participants during the year following their study tour. Site visits to teams or individual participants during the year following the study tour enable project staff to see first-hand what changes may be taking place, how individual classroom teaching or district-wide curriculum are being improved, and how students as well as other teachers are feeling ripple effects of the study-tour participants' trip. Distributing a newsletter or conducting regular correspondence with participants is a relatively cost-effective way of providing support and encouraging continued networking. Newsletters or regular memos can advise study-tour "alumni" of relevant professional and cultural opportunities, and recommended new resources while providing a clearinghouse for news about special projects or accomplishments of the participants.

Study-tour programs can also sponsor presentations by alumni at regional or national educational conferences. The New England Program for Teaching About Japan and the Mid-America Program for Teaching About Japan, as well as the Keizai Koho Center Fellowship Program and a number of the Fulbright study tours, have traditionally presented sessions at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies. These sessions provide a forum for six or eight study-tour alumni to report to a national audience on the projects they have initiated as a result of their trips. Other projects, such as the Rocky Mountain Region Japan Project, coordinate a strand of sessions highlighting curriculum projects of their participants at regional social studies conferences. Such activities not only provide an opportunity for alumni to showcase their efforts, but also enable them to reunite and share follow-through experiences with their fellow study-tour participants.

Some study-tour projects have had success with reunion workshops held a year after the trip. Such workshops typically focus on the accomplishments and concerns of study-tour alumni. Participants have the opportunity to demonstrate or discuss their follow-through projects, enhance their knowledge through content lectures, and share new ideas and successes as well as frustrations. Reunion workshops can be extremely effective in revitalizing alumni and giving them ideas for spin-off projects or sustained efforts. If projects or institutions conduct study tours on a regular basis, they can showcase alumni and contribute to professional growth and project commitment by calling upon alumni to help train/orient new groups of study-tour participants.

Still other projects have provided incentives for long-term or spin-off activities that go beyond initial commitments. For example, one regional project offers stipends to study-tour alumni for conducting teacher workshops over and above those initially promised. Another regional project offers annual minigrants to teams, individuals, or school districts to conduct in-service or curriculum enhancement projects.

The benefits and effectiveness of a good study tour are unquestionable. Achieving a beneficial experience requires careful planning, orientation, efficient management and conduct, and meaningful follow-through. Together, these elements will encourage an on-going, collaborative application of the knowledge and experience acquired through the study tour.

8

Exchange: Bringing People and Ideas Together

John J. Cogan
with contributions from:
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"Seeing is believing" is a phrase we have all heard on numerous occasions. The connotation is that if one can experience something first-hand, a more accurate picture of reality will emerge. If you ask any educator "why exchange?" you are likely to get a multitude of responses, but underlying all of them is that simple belief.

In this brief chapter, the reasons for exchanges will be examined, how our regional project made this an integral part of our work will be detailed, the kinds of exchanges will be explored, and, finally, brief descriptions of programs in practice will be examined.

Why Exchange? There are many reasons for developing and implementing exchange programs. First, there is the need to reduce myths and stereotypes about other peoples and cultures. Textbooks, supplementary materials, literature, television programming, films, and many other sources distort and stereotype other peoples and cultures. Exchanges of both materials and, if possible, people, help considerably in presenting a more realistic picture. The sharing of information and ideas about each others' cultures is especially important. As detailed in one of the later examples, cultural sharing not only helps learners gain increased understanding of another culture, but it also helps them gain deeper insights into their own as well. We often forget this, but it is critical to a fully informed global perspective.

Second, exchanges give the concepts and generalizations students are studying a reality base. Concepts such as culture, time, space, change, adaptation, and a host of others take on new meaning when seen through the eyes of others. Again it provides for reflection upon what we have come to accept as the "only" way of viewing a concept. This is a very important criterion for a lifetime of learning.

Third, exchange also emphasizes cultural universals as well as the unique attributes of cultures and societies. Learners, especially young ones, need to understand that all human beings share similar basic needs and yet may approach the fulfillment of these in many different ways. In the process, they may learn there are other ways to develop and progress which are different, but just as legitimate as those in their own society.

Fourth, and often overlooked, are the personal and professional working relationships which develop out of exchanges whether they be people or material. In the case of our regional project, several exchanges have developed and expanded far beyond their original scope. In all cases, this has been due to the close bonding which has taken place between the participants.

The Great Lakes Japan-in-the-Schools Project (GLJSP) set as one of its primary goals the development of relationships between communities, schools, and individuals in Japan and in project states that would last far beyond years of the funded activity. Only in this way could we, in part, insure the institutionalization of the project goals. These relationships were built upon existing sister city or sister state/prefecture linkages where possible. New relationships were established as well, especially in the case of the Wisconsin Team and the exchange of culture discovery boxes with Chiba Prefecture. Indeed, this led to an eventual formal relationship between the two states.

Ohio, Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin all have existing "sister" linkages with Japanese counterparts, including the oldest established relationship between St. Paul and Nagasaki. During the GLJSP study seminar in Japan, July 1988, each of the state teams visited their sister cities/prefectures for several days to strengthen ties and discuss future projects. In all instances this has revitalized the relationships and has led to some of the new activities outlined in the examples in practice to follow.

It has also led to each of the states hosting one or more of the Japan project ieams (sponsored by the United States-Japan Foundation) as part of their summer seminar experiences here in the United States. All of this has strengthened ties between schools and teachers across the Pacific. We expect this to become even stronger in the future.

Kinds of Exchanges. The exchanges carried out to date have been primarily of four types although generally these are not singular types of activities. They often involve three and sometimes all four elements. The primary means of exchange focus on the following:

1. People-to-people, both community and school-based
2. Materials including culture discovery boxes, textbooks, artwork, photographs, etc.
3. Video letters about life in the school and the community at large
4. Cassette tapes, especially of popular and traditional music

What has yet to be explored, although soon to come, are electronic exchanges including computer-based electronic mail, facsimile transmissions, and satellite links. The first two are relatively inexpensive; the latter is presently quite costly, and one must have access to both up- and down-link facilities. The potential for all three, however, is nearly limitless. As one media specialist pointed out recently, these electronic links could also play a role in stimulating the study of language.

There are undoubtedly many more possibilities as well, but these serve to give us some idea of how we can begin to connect with one another in more meaningful ways.

Examples in Practice. Each of the five examples to follow are actual programs now in practice. They range from summer to year-long exchanges and include material exchanges. The five contributors are identified with their program and can be contacted through the Great Lakes Japan-in-the-Schools Program (see listing under National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network members).

It's a Small World

Jean Sorensen

Mankato, Minnesota

This program began with a Japanese woman's dream. A dream that saw children from Japan learning and playing with children from Minnesota. In 1985, Toshiko Motoyama brought a group of children to Winona, Minnesota for a homestay program. Toshiko had been a student at Mankato State University, and in 1986, she asked me to be the U.S. coordinator of the program. It was called, "It's a Small World."

In 1989, we completed the exchange. In addition to bringing Japanese students to Mankato for three weeks in the summer, we began to have Mankato students return with the group to Japan for a two-week homestay. During the five years of the program, over 100 U.S. families hosted the Japanese students.

While in Mankato, the Japanese and U.S. students (ages 7-19) attend enrichment classes and go on many field trips together. The program must be educationally sound, because the Japanese students have responsibility for summer learning experiences as part of their school curriculum. The Japanese families pay the cost of the airline tickets for their children, plus a fee that covers all the educational expenses and transportation for the field trips. In return, the U.S. families provide home meals, and many recreational experiences for the Japanese children. When the Mankato students go to Japan, the same procedure is followed, e.g., parents pay for their children's air fares, and then Japanese families host them. There is no school in Japan at this time (August), but much time is spent with families in a variety of cultural experiences. The main goal is to provide a bridge between cultures through face-to-face encounters.

The key to the success of the program is to provide a good match in choosing the host families. An application form is sent to the Mankato families asking for names, addresses, phone numbers, teachers, pets, and hobbies. A similar form is completed by the Japanese parents. The Japanese forms request the date of birth, sex, height, weight, knowledge of English, experience abroad, and medical requirements. Pictures are also included which help the hosts become acquainted with the children before they arrive.

Once the families are selected, they begin corresponding. Hosts send the Japanese family a description of the community, the summer staff, and facilities. An orientation for the Mankato host families includes Japanese language information and an overview of the program. A telephone tree is set up for quick passing of information, and parents choose the activities that they would like to help organize. These include a variety of events from the welcoming reception to fishing trips, swimming parties, cultural and historical events, concerts, and dozens of others.

Three U.S. and two Japanese teachers make up the full-time staff. Part-time teachers are hired for projects in history, science, computers, music, and calligraphy. Facilities at a local high school are rented for a nominal fee. They include a classroom, a gymnasium, a home economics room, a planetarium, a swimming pool, and tennis courts. A rented bus takes the group to parks, shopping centers, hog and dairy farms, historical sites including Fort Snelling, rivers, lakes, a zoo, museums, the Science Museum and Omni Theater in St. Paul, a Twins baseball game in Minneapolis, horseback riding, the Minnesota Viking football training camp, and to Mankato State University. Roller skating, bowling, hiking, and camping have also been included. U.S. and Japanese Days feature cooking, crafts, songs, dances, and games from each country. The many sports played range from softball to sumo wrestling. One summer, mini-Olympic games with track and field events were held.

Language differences do present a challenge. High school age children have the most problems. English language classes begin in 7th grade in Japanese schools, but written English is stressed, and thus students do not have a conversational background. The younger children come from international schools where English is used in all classes. These children come on the exchange to improve their English skills. The ability of these young children as they begin to communicate with their U.S. hosts is amazing.

As the 20 to 25 Japanese students come through the doors of the customs area, there are tired and tense faces, but these soon change to smiles as they see the welcome signs held by their Mankato hosts. After a weekend of sleep and relaxation with their families, they are ready to join the whole group. An active day of river tubing, a hayride, and a cornroast on a farm are planned for the first get-acquainted day. The day ends with a sing-along around the campfire, where shared laughter is heard, and the exchange is off to a good start.

The Japanese children are insured in Japan. They have accident and health insurance. A list of the students, their host families, and their addresses are taken to the local hospital admissions office in case a non-English-speaking child should be involved in an emergency situation.

Gift giving is an important part of Japanese culture. U.S. families are told to prepare gifts for the Japanese children and their families as they will be receiving gifts, too. Hosts have given handcrafted items, calendars, books about the local area, T-shirts, and local products. Local companies donate gifts such as: playing cards, frisbees, coupons, pens, seedcorn logo caps, and tote bags. These things are presented to the Japanese students at the welcoming party.

The greatest gifts, however, are the smiles, the hugs, and the tears shed at the airport by parents and students. It is hard to say good-by, but hosts do see them again, and the letters and gifts continue the friendships. The program is a bridge between cultures.

The Hikone/Ann Arbor Junior High School Student Educational and Cultural Exchange

Shirley Davis Schumacher
Ann Arbor, Michigan

I went to Japan for the first time in fall of 1979 as one of 16 Michigan educators who spent six weeks in our sister prefecture, Shiga, visiting 13 sister cities there. We enjoyed homestays, toured 28 schools, and had a variety of cultural experiences as members of a Fulbright-Hays Exchange Seminar. Once home, I became project director of a program which was designed to offer a similar experience for some of our district's students. A sister city relationship existed between Hikone and Ann Arbor, and the Hikone mayor had already proposed a pairing of the five junior high schools in each city. Earlier in 1979, and for each year since, a Hikone student has visited our school, bringing gifts from the principal and classmates.

An associate project director and I worked with the school system and with leaders in the city and state/prefectural governments to create an educational experience for students, which would include a two-and-a-half week summer student exchange trip to Japan. Over the five years of planning, the governors of Shiga and Michigan, three superintendents of schools, and two mayors in Ann Arbor, the Hikone mayor, the head of the board of education, and two superintendents lent their support as well. Finally, all was in place. Superintendent Richard Benjamin (at his own expense) and I led the first group in 1985. Two more groups have gone, in 1988 and 1990.

The Hikone/Ann Arbor Exchange contributed to the Michigan State Board of Education's goals for global, multilingual, and multicultural education; goals which are intended to develop citizens equipped to live in the 21st century. Ann Arbor has site-based individual school plans designed to reach many of these goals; our 6th and 7th grade social studies curriculum is World Cultures and Geography, a course of study which emphasizes geographical regions and common global concerns about resources, population, and the environment. The exchange's goal for students (as stated in the information brochure) is, "to help those students, their families, their classmates, and their teachers to gain a world-centered perspective and to engage the entire Ann Arbor community in dimensions of this project. It can help strengthen present secondary school curriculum in areas of global education; it is hoped that it will increase understanding that we do indeed coexist in a global society."

The Hikone/Ann Arbor (H/AA) Exchange has these features:

Leadership. One male and one female adult leader is selected from among Ann Arbor Public Schools (AAPS) staff member volunteers by the H/AA Exchange Advisory Committee. Duties consist of coordinating plans and funding for the Exchange, and providing orientation sessions for students. The leader's travel expenses are paid by the Exchange.

Eligibility. Every 7th and 8th grader receives an Exchange brochure from their school's staff liaison to the project. Those interested, who have home support, and meet the criteria established, get an application from the liaison to complete and return. Travel expenses are paid by the Exchange.

Selection. After each school has chosen their five finalists, two students (one each from the 7th and 8th grades) are selected by a city-wide committee. At each level in the selection process, groups must be gender-balanced and culturally diverse.

Orientation. The selected students attend orientation sessions which can include: lessons in the Japanese language, behaviors in Japanese culture, instruction in group dynamics in the United States and Japan, meetings with Japanese nationals, discussions with United States visitors to Japan, role play of day-to-day living, multimedia looks at Japanese education, origami (paper folding) lessons in folding a peace crane for the community, family events, and an Independent Study Project (ISP), a tool to help the students find a special focus.

Obligation. Each member of the Exchange is a liaison to a Board of Education trustee and a City Council member. The Exchange ambassadors give programs for community groups (e.g., Intermediate School District principals; Friends of the Ann Arbor Public Library). The leaders contribute to the training of their successors and host their Hikone counterparts here. The students plan lessons and teach in their own schools and in the elementary schools.

Support. Since 1987, the Exchange is one of the responsibilities of an administrative specialist in the AAPS. The Exchange has an advisory committee, a broad-based volunteer group of individuals from the community, which provides a variety of support activities. In-kind services, such as printing and financial accounting, are provided by the district. In-school liaisons to the project are the community education coordinators who schedule the distribution of information concerning student applications and co-chair the first step in the student selection process (5 finalists in each school). Other staff members contribute their time and talents. Parents, students, and their friends assist the group, too. Japanese nationals teach language lessons. The business community, service clubs, and individuals make donations.

To establish an exchange, the following should be given serious consideration: first, the value of careful planning cannot be overstated; second, to understand one another's goals and capabilities is very important. Next, if an exchange is intended to be ongoing, it needs step-by-step implementation and frequent evaluation. Finally, programs which have been institutionalized can continue if there are personnel changes.

The Utica Community Schools-Shiga Kokusai Joho High School Exchange

Robert Van Camp
Utica, Michigan

The Utica Community Schools-Shiga Kokusai Joho High School Exchange Program was the direct result of the Great Lakes Japan-in-the-Schools Project's 1988 summer study tour of Japan. Naofumi Matsuoka, a faculty member of Kokusai Joho who had been an exchange teacher in Utica in 1986, worked with a Utica colleague and me to develop the idea and wrote a draft version of the agreement prior to the end of our tour. Following revisions made by various administrators in Shiga and Utica, the document was signed by both parties in the spring of 1989.

The agreement had four objectives:

1. To create an opportunity for a direct school-to-school exchange of students during the school year to study the culture, customs, language, society, and history of one another.
2. To provide a brief summer visitation as an introductory, but concentrated cross-cultural study.
3. To develop a series of exchanges, such as written, video, and computer letters between students, classes, and schools on a continual basis each year.
4. To promote an overall understanding of the strengths and positive contributions of each other's culture.

The agreement reflects the Utica Community Schools commitment to world studies, one of five items in the core curriculum designated by the Michigan State Board of Education in 1990. More specifically, the exchange program is a component of the district's East Asian Institute. This program enables students from all four high schools to study the Japanese language, East Asian history, and culture for three years.

The summer visitations involve 11-day stays in the respective district with a 3-day trip to Washington, D.C. for the Japanese, and three days in Seoul or Hong Kong for the U.S. citizens. During the eleven days, students and educators enjoy homestays with host students and their families. Educational and recreational activities are planned for most days with a few days left to the host families.

The academic year exchanges, while still in the formative stage, will allow for two or three students from Utica and Kokusai Joho to enroll in the exchange school for one or two semesters. Recent changes by the Japanese Ministry of Education allowing Japanese nationals to receive academic credit for approved courses while studying overseas have opened the door for this aspect of our exchange. Realistically, we do not expect the exchange students to have sufficient language fluency to operate in the exchange school. Consequently, special assistance will be offered.

The following suggestions are designed to help the reader to achieve a successful exchange program:

1. **Start small**.

   The temptation is to start with a comprehensive exchange program. The excitement from envisioning what you want to happen can quickly lead to disappointment. Start with one component of the exchange and build from there.

2. **Carefully choose your exchange participants**.

   Students' desire and financial ability are not sufficient reasons for being chosen. We have set up a committee of experienced travelers/educators who screen all applicants. Among the criteria the committee considers are the following:
   - demonstrated ability to adapt to a foreign culture
   - ability to get along well with other students
   - willingness to try new experiences/things
   - willingness to try new food
   - ability to represent Utica Community Schools well
   - adequate Japanese language skills
   - willingness to host a Japanese student

3. **Properly prepare the U.S. participants for the upcoming exchange program**.

   Cultural and language orientation sessions are essential. Leader/educators need to adapt to the Japanese style. Wearing casual clothes at a ceremony when your hosts are in suits; pulling business cards from your back pocket; failing to acknowledge gifts and other acts of kindness adequately can all jeopardize the relationship.

St. Marys Sister City
Summer Youth Exchange Program

Shirley McEvoy
St. Marys, Ohio

St. Marys' involvement in a flourishing sister city relationship and an outstanding exchange program is directly related to the international friendship that grew between members of the Japan Working Youth Goodwill Society, its founder, and the people of St. Marys. In 1976, one of our community leaders received a call from Japan. He was asked if our city would host a delegation of young people. In the fall of the same year, 30 young professional men and women from all over Japan spent four days in our city. Homestays were provided to enable the young people to experience first-hand family life in the United States. Friendships grew and soon the Japan Working Youth Goodwill Society had visited the city on seven different occasions. The president and founder of the organization was so impressed by the hospitality provided the young people on each of their visits, he proposed a sister city relationship between his home town of Hokudan-Cho and St. Marys. A formal resolution from the Hokudan city council was delivered to the St. Marys council by the Working Youth tour leader in 1985.

In 1986, an official delegation from Hokudan visited St. Marys to sign the official documents and invite a similar group to visit their city in 1987. During the return visit, discussions were held to determine the ways and means by which the two cities could enhance and deepen their relationship. It was decided that the communities would exchange community newsletters and gifts; the schools would exchange pen pal letters, art work, and video letters. After one year of exchanges of this type, St. Marys hosted the first youth delegation from Hokudan in 1988.

The purpose of the St. Marys Youth Exchange Program is to involve the youth and the community in the project. The goals of the program are to:

- deepen the friendship that has grown between the cities
- provide the youth of both cities with an educational opportunity to experience family life with host families
- involve the entire community, so that all citizens will grow to recognize the importance and future significance of young people knowing about one another's culture, and

- continue to promote programs of this kind that may some day lead to world peace.

The selection process begins in September. Applications are distributed to the junior and senior high school guidance offices. All students in grades 7-12 can apply. The students finance their own travel expenses and air fare. The sister city organization and local business clubs help defray all other expenses. The written applications are collected and read by five citizens who are committed to the project. The applications are identified only by social security numbers. Applications receiving the highest ratings are matched with the students' names. These students are notified by mail that they are to proceed to an oral interview. All students who have not been selected also receive letters encouraging them to apply again the next year. By the end of November, the committee has selected 10 delegates and 2 alternates to be St. Marys' young ambassadors of friendship to Hokudan. The same procedure is used to select the group leader and alternate leader. All alternate students and leaders are involved in the program the next year.

From January through July, the members of the sister city organization and interested community members help prepare the group for their trip and homestays. All delegates, leaders, and alternates are required to participate in these monthly meetings. The group studies the history, customs, and culture of Japan, some conversational Japanese, and general information about Hokudan and its people. Citizens of St. Marys who have visited Hokudan share their photographs, slides, and experiences. Local Japanese residents attend sessions and help the youth learn more about the culture and language of Japan. Local Japanese residents also prepare foods for the group to taste. Local businesses give the youth small items to present as gifts. Music teachers and physical education teachers assist the students in learning songs and dances to perform for the culture exchange. The community library provides a meeting room for the sessions. One local Japanese business donates funds and arranges for representatives from his company to greet the youth at their hotel in Tokyo and provides a tour guide for them. Various predeparture tasks are delegated to all members of the group.

The youth delegation leaves St. Marys in late July. They spend five days touring Japan before traveling to Hokudan where they spend five more days experiencing Japanese family life with their host families.

Hokudan's youth delegation accompanies our students on their return trip to St. Marys. St. Marys' citizens, city officials, and sister city members gather at Dayton International Airport to welcome both delegations. The arriving youth delegation spends five days with their host families experiencing U.S. family life and then visits other sites in the country before returning to Japan. During their stay, factories, schools, local businesses, and public utilities provide tours of their facilities. A local car sales operation donates the use of two vans to transport the group. English teachers prepare and teach English conversation lessons for the group. The local YMCA opens their facility to the youth for a cultural exchange, and both groups enjoy sports activities together. Neil Armstrong Airport donates free airplane rides. Local restaurants plan special meals for the youth. Local Japanese residents work out a schedule whereby each of them spends one day as the translator for the touring group. The students spend the last two days of their visit at the community's annual Summerfest. The delegation from Hokudan is introduced to the community in the park, and both youth delegations ride floats in the parade and participate in the planned activities. When students return to their homes, both youth delegations write personal accounts of their experiences. The letters are translated and sent to one another's cities to be shared with the communities.

Those just starting or contemplating starting an exchange program, should explore the possibility of first entering into a sister city relationship, a relationship that is not another framed document in the mayor's office, but one that actively involves people.

The Chiba-Wisconsin Culture Discovery Box Exchange

Hilary Stock

Mt. Horeb, Wisconsin

Creating and exchanging culture discovery boxes was the Wisconsin team's response to the Great Lakes Japan-in-the-Schools Project's objective "to develop and strengthen linkages between sister cities and sister states in Japan." Unlike the other states in the Great Lakes Project, Wisconsin lacked exchange models and institutionalized programs to build on to achieve this goal. Moreover, each member of the Wisconsin team was responsible for developing and disseminating global studies curricula in the schools of the state. Given these two related tasks, our trip to Japan in the summer of 1988 presented an opportunity to create a cross-cultural exchange activity that would have educational integrity for all classrooms, that was not an "add on" to an overcrowded curriculum or an enrichment activity for a select few. The creation and exchange of culture discovery boxes that resulted between Wisconsin and Japanese classrooms provides a model for any educator interested in developing cross-cultural exchanges as an integral component of cultures or global studies curricula.

The activity, briefly described below, was initially completed with exchanges between Wisconsin students and educators, and students and educators in Kanonji City and Chiba Prefecture. In subsequent years, educators from Chiba have become an important part of our Japan summer institutes, and Wisconsin and Chiba have become official sister states. Equally significant, cross-cultural artifact exchanges are expanding throughout the state as a meaningful way to build cultural, national, and international awareness in our classrooms and communities.

Procedure

The basic procedure for a cross-cultural exchange of artifacts is deceptively simple. Students in one classroom or school develop a collection of artifacts that they have decided represents important aspects of their culture(s). They attach to each artifact an explanation of why the class has decided the artifact is important. The collection is then exchanged with a class or school in a different culture, nation, and/or geographic region. Furthermore, students speculate and record the kinds of artifacts and explanations they expect to receive from the exchange culture. Finally, if all goes according to plan, the class receives a culture discovery box from students in a different culture who have gone through a similar process. They then examine the exchange culture's artifacts, explanations, and meanings, and compare them to their recorded list of expected artifacts, explanations, and meanings. In the process of the activity, students explore the importance of cultural symbols, learn through experience the reality of cultural (ethnocentric) assumptions, and are challenged by the joys and difficulties of cross-cultural communication.

Creating a Culture Discovery Box: Student Negotiations

Which artifacts students select for a culture discovery box, how they choose them, and why they feel they are significant varies widely depending on grade level and the cultural composition of the class or school. Nevertheless, important ideas and themes emerge from each process with teacher awareness and leadership. These ideas include distinctions and relationships between and among notions of ideal and real culture, subculture and dominant culture, personal and group experience, the intergenerational transmission of ideas and values, and the nature of economic dependence, interdependence, and independence.

General curriculum questions include:

1. Does the artifact selected have a common symbolic meaning for the class as a whole? the school? the community? the region? the nation? internationally? Why? Why not?
2. What aspects of culture are represented by the artifacts we have selected?
3. What will the exchange culture conclude about us because of the artifacts we have selected?
4. Should artifacts that are foreign made be included in the collection? Why? Why not?
5. Does the artifact have intergenerational meaning or historic endurance?
6. How has the meaning and symbol changed or remained over time?
7. Can the idea or experience symbolized by the artifact be conveyed by other artifacts? If so, upon what criteria is one artifact selected over another, similar artifact?
8. What do we expect to receive from the exchange culture? and
9. Why do we expect to receive these artifacts?

Receiving a Culture Discovery Box

Perhaps the most important aspect of receiving a culture discovery box lies in general class excitement and anticipation; they have actually connected with another culture! But the actual lessons are "hands on" demonstrations of cultural bias, ethnocentric assumption, and stereotyping. Most of us interpret artifacts and their meanings by our own cultural norms, and student comparisons of what they expected to find in the discovery box and what was actually sent illustrates this fact very successfully.

Sixth graders in a suburban Wisconsin community had expected to receive from their colleagues in Japan a picture of Mt. Fuji, a Japanese flag, a doll in a kimono, something about sumo wrestling, a model of a Mazda, and a school book. What they actually found in their exchange collection was a school book, a Tokyo Giants yearbook, Buddhist/Shinto good luck inscriptions, a McDonalds' menu in Japanese, and a picture of the Children's Peace Memorial in Hiroshima.

Similarly, the Japanese had anticipated only a few of the artifacts that they actually received from Wisconsin.

General curriculum questions regarding the exchange culture discovery box, therefore, are directed at demystifying such differences and include:

1. In the study of groups and cultures, how are valid generalizations distinguished from stereotypes?
2. How do stereotypes evolve?
3. What misconceptions do we have about the exchange culture?
4. What misconceptions does the exchange culture have about us?
5. Why are similar artifacts in both culture boxes given different cultural meaning?
6. Which artifacts in both collections symbolize cultural universals? and
7. What further information is needed about the exchange culture to more fully appreciate the artifacts in the exchange collection?

In conclusion, having attempted to put together a set of artifacts to convey to others a sense of their own collective experiences, students become more aware of the difficulties and subjective nature of cultural study and interpretation. The realization that their counterparts in other areas of the nation or world perceive of them in incomplete and stereotypical terms gives students added insight to the patterns of their own thoughts and world views. At the least, the exchange gives all learners pause to consider their own assumptions. At the most, the activity improves cross-cultural understanding.

There are many other examples of exchanges as well among the other regional projects that comprise the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network. Interested readers should contact the directors of those projects (See the listing in the back of this book) for further information.

This has been a very brief look at the area of exchanges, primarily those with an educational base. The five contributors of the examples in practice made some very important suggestions which deserve a review.

1. Start small—do not try to do it all at once, but rather take it one step at a time.
2. Contact your nearest Sister Cities International office for assistance both in terms of how to proceed and how to make a contact abroad.
3. Be sure you build and then continue to nurture support both within the community-at-large as well as within the school for such a program. You cannot do this alone!

4. In the case of a people-to-people exchange, choose your participants very carefully. Use established criteria and a qualified selection committee.
5. Make sure you properly prepare your participants before they depart, as well as prepare persons in your school and community to receive participants from abroad.
6. Involve parents as much as possible. They are often very good sources of information and, if made to feel a part of the program, can become your strongest supporters when needed.
7. Involve all the students in some way, even if they are not actual participants at this point in time.

9

Contemporary U.S.-Japan Business Relations: Issues and Networking

Douglas Barry and Lucien Ellington

The following chapter presents an analysis of two recent polls on U.S.-Japan economic relations: this will help the reader to think reflectively about perceptions and reality regarding bilateral U.S.-Japanese business and economic relations.

This chapter also explores actual examples of U.S. high school students learning business and economics through innovative programs involving U.S. citizens and Japanese. Hopefully, these case studies will stimulate other innovative projects designed to increase international content in secondary school business and economics curricula.

Japan and the United States: Perceptions and Reality

The growing complexity of U.S.-Japanese economic relations is a phenomenon that has attracted an enormous amount of attention on both sides of the Pacific over the past decade. This is hardly surprising, given that by the 1990s, Japan has become the second leading foreign investor in the United States, while the U.S., in addition to being the leading foreign investor in Japan, is the number one world market for Japanese products.

Despite John Naisbitt's assertion that the United States and Japan are now so interdependent there is an incentive on the part of both sides to work out any serious problems, "ambiguous" is currently the most optimistic adjective that could be used to describe perceptions of citizens in both countries toward each others' economies.

Note the use of the word "perceptions," in the previous sentence. Although economic problems between Japan and the U.S. obviously do exist, more attention is given to general perceptions of those economic problems, because of our belief that public emotions and feelings contribute at least as much to the health of the bilateral relationship as any substantive issue.

While the opinions of business people, politicians, and scholars are no doubt ultimately influential, they pale in significance when compared to the perceptions ordinary U.S. and Japanese citizens have about each other. What follows is an analysis of what two much publicized recent polls do and do not tell us about those opinions.

U.S.-Japan Relations. On the face of it, interviews conducted by Harris for *Business Week* in 1989 of random national samples of U.S. and Japanese citizens and the resulting media coverage, depict quite grim perceptions regarding each other.

On the U.S. side, 68 percent of the adults who were interviewed believed that Japanese companies do better selling products in the U.S. than U.S. companies fare in Japan, because Japan imposes unfair barriers on U.S. imports. Seventy-nine percent of U.S. respondents favored requiring that the Japanese allow a certain amount of U.S. products into their country, while well over 60 percent of those polled favored imposing higher tariffs on Japanese products, and limiting the amount of Japanese goods allowed into the United States.

Finally, in perhaps the most publicized question from the same poll, 68 percent of U.S. citizens believed that the economic threat from Japan was more serious to the future of this country than the military threat from the Soviet Union.

In a similar poll of Japanese adults conducted in the same year by Harris and published in *Business Week*, negative attitudes also seemed to abound. Fifty-four percent of Japanese identified low product quality as the major reason U.S. companies had trouble selling products in Japan. Fifty-seven percent of Japanese thought the United States was unfairly pressuring Japan on trade issues, and a plurality (41 percent) of Japanese believed that if relations with the U.S. worsened, Japan should work harder to improve relations with the Soviet Union.

The polls offer a roughly accurate indicator of the effects of genuinely unhealthy aspects of the economic systems of both countries upon the feelings of citizens. It is true, that while the Japanese have lower overall tariff levels than the United States, there has been longtime selective discrimination in certain sectors of the Japanese economy, particularly agriculture and construction, against foreign imports and business people.

Also, the Japanese public is somewhat accurate in the perception that U.S. companies have paid too much attention to short-term profits while often neglecting product quality. At the same time, U.S. trade negotiators, as illustrated by the pressure exerted on Japanese officials to change a national law regulating the amount of paperwork a business concern must complete before it can open a large retail or wholesale outlet, have, at times, attempted to exert undue authority over a sovereign nation's domestic policies.

To a certain extent, the two polls are also useful as guides to those who wish to understand public perceptions about Japan-U.S. economic and political problems. It is both dangerous and inaccurate to rely exclusively upon such indices as public opinion polls to draw any conclusions about the current state of the relationship. Any accurate analysis of opinion poll data should include reflection on what parts of the polls the media emphasized or chose to ignore, and upon the structure of the questions included in the polls.

When one looks past the seemingly dire state of the relationship depicted by the polls, there is also information in the same assessments which provides evidence that, despite the recent rhetoric, things are not nearly so bad as some reports suggest. Two questions, which offer significant information in this regard, deal with general feelings on the part of citizens in each nation for the other country. On the U.S. side, 79 percent of the respondents felt "very friendly" or "somewhat friendly" toward the Japanese. The answers of the Japanese respondents about their feelings were quite similar, as 68 percent of Japanese felt "very friendly" or "somewhat friendly" toward the U.S.

Unfortunately, for the most part, U.S. and Japanese media, while accentuating the already cited negative responses, gave relatively short shrift to the above data, which was described in a *Japan Times* editorial as illustrative of ". . . a continuing store of mutual good will . . ." on the part of the majority of citizens in both countries (May 25, 1990).

In addition to questionable emphasis, the media can also be charged with questionable interpretation of at least one question. The majority of U.S. and Japanese media coverage of the U.S. sample poll focused upon whether the economic threat from Japan or the Soviet military is a greater danger to the U.S. Most analysts took the fact that a majority of U.S. citizens felt Japan's economic threat to be a more serious one to their country than the Soviet military, to be evidence that Americans were frightened, and perhaps even hostile toward Japan.

Other interpretations are certainly valid. For the first time, large numbers of the U.S. public are aware of structural domestic economic problems. At the same time, recent events in the Soviet Union have ended the "Cold War" mentality that was present among a large number of our citizens for so long. These events, coupled with the contradictory data from the same poll indicating that most U.S. citizens have positive general feelings toward the Japanese, perhaps means the nature of the answers to the Japan-Soviet threat question may simply, in the words of the same *Japan Times* editorial cited earlier, ". . . reflect the perception of Americans that economic competition now is more important than military rivalry . . ." Understanding that the world is now more economically competitive than in the past is a far cry from harboring antagonistic feelings toward another country.

Finally, educators who are trying to understand the nature of U.S.-Japan relations should constantly keep in mind the limitations of attitudinal survey research when encountering examples such as the ones cited above. Respondents on both sides of the Pacific were choosing from a limited list, and had no opportunity to provide other interpretations or opinions. Americans and Japanese face substantive economic problems, but hopefully this analysis illustrates that no hard and fast generalizations should be drawn based on public opinion surveys, no matter how well publicized, about public perceptions of the relationship in each country.

Exploring Entrepreneurship

This next section will explore entrepreneurship through an examination of innovative programs involving U.S. and Japanese citizens.

> I am convinced that any true fix for the problems U.S. industry is experiencing in facing foreign competition must begin by taking a comprehensive look at our primary and secondary education systems, and discovering why our children are inherently fascinated with the way things work, but become, as adults, content to know only the size and shape of things around them. (Philip Condit, the Boeing Corporation, 1988).

As Americans perceived a relative decline in their economic prowess during the last several years, the finger of blame has pointed in many directions including the nation's primary and secondary schools. Low scores on standardized tests and high dropout rates relative to other industrialized countries, especially Japan, are seen as symptoms of a more ominous disease. James Fallows argues that the declining quality of U.S. education is causing our workforce to lose its lead in product and service innovation. These concerns have generated calls for reform, including developing a global view (*New York Times* July 26, 1987) and encouraging greater cooperation between schools and business (Zoffer 1991). These proposals, in turn, are the subject of a smaller controversy, with critics warning that once again educators are being asked to remold curricula to serve the narrow interests of business and industry.

Meanwhile, deep in the trenches, entrepreneurial educators continue to explore ways to help balance the changing needs of society with the needs of the individual. Objectives like increasing industrial competitiveness are on the agenda, but so are other things like developing a more global perspective, building self-esteem and confidence, increasing math and computer skills, and even learning how to run a small business.

The Alaska Programs

In what follows, case studies are presented about what entrepreneurial educators are doing in two programs in Alaska organized around the study of Japan. Entrepreneur in this context means a developer of new programs. Perhaps more significantly, it also means the act of always searching for change, responding to it, and exploiting it as an opportunity. Entrepreneurs are makers of drama, engaged in a process of creative destruction (Drucker 1985). This part of the chapter is divided into three sections: profiles of two programs; a summary of lessons learned; and suggestions for educators and makers of drama interested in adopting aspects of the Alaska programs.

Mt. Edgecumbe School. Mt. Edgecumbe School Superintendent Larrae Rocheleau was given a mandate a few years ago to create a high school curriculum that would focus on the Pacific Rim. Many Alaskans believe their state should be a player in the "Pacific Century," and preparing the next generation to perform this role is the rightful responsibility of formal education.

Mt. Edgecumbe has one other important feature besides its curriculum and spectacular physical location on an island near Sitka. The students are all Alaska Natives, meaning Yupik and Inupiat Eskimos, and representatives of various North Pacific coast Indian tribes, whose ancestors first crossed a land bridge from Mongolia millions of years ago. In a way, Mt. Edgecumbe High School serves as a leadership academy for the Alaska Native population. Not a bad idea considering Alaska Native people have gone from a lifestyle based on hunting their own food to managing big corporations and social service organizations—all in the space of one lifetime. Now they see the ability to do business with Japan, the Soviet Far East, and other countries around the Pacific Rim as a natural extension of these competencies.

Mt. Edgecumbe provides extensive mandatory language instruction. Courses are also offered on the geography, culture, and history of Alaska's geographic neighbors. But what really appears to make the curriculum unique is the school's business. All 220 students are involved with the school's smoked salmon production facility at some point in their four-year course of study. Several years ago Rocheleau and his teachers decided that a school-based business would be a good way to apply what students were learning in their other classes. In addition, it might open up a whole new area of learning that could benefit students and their communities after graduation.

Rocheleau approached a Japanese company based in Sitka. In fact, the company, Alaska Pulp, was the first Japanese-owned company in Alaska, established about 60 years ago. Rocheleau sought and received advice on how to develop a product for the Japanese market. The decision was to focus on smoked salmon. The raw material is abundant in the region, but Alaskans had shown little interest in further processing the fish. So Rocheleau and his faculty saw a market niche and decided to challenge the assumption that there was not much to be gained from trying to add value to the raw materials.

Alaska Pulp helped the high school identify potential buyers in Japan, who later performed taste tests and critiqued package designs. The company, through its connection with a group of Japanese interested in Alaska lore called Alaska Kai, arranged for a group of students and teachers to travel to Japan during the summer of 1988. The Japanese picked up all expenses for the party of 14.

The students received more feedback about their products and gained an appreciation for the requirements of the marketplace. Returning to school in the fall, everyone involved in classes related to the business joined in an effort to experiment with new recipes for smoking the salmon fillets. More significantly, the relationship with the Japanese was off to a good start. The students had made a good impression. During one of the homestays, a short period where students stay in a private home with a family, usually without cost, one of the hosts gave her "adopted son," a Yupik Eskimo, a new sports jacket. He took it as a sign that he was ready to do business.

A year later, another contingent from Mt. Edgecumbe visited Japan, again at the expense of several Japanese companies, including Tokyo Gas. The companies decided that it was important for the Alaska students to experience a Japanese style vacation. So the Alaskans went on vacation to the seashore with their corporate sponsors.

Another significant event during the second trip was the decision of a Japanese fish wholesaler to import smoked salmon from the Mt. Edgecumbe student enterprise. The years of fiddling with oven temperatures, salt content, brine solutions, vacuum packs, and marketing strategies had finally brought results.

To avoid potential charges of unfair competition, the high school announced that it would provide its manufacturing and sales know-how to the local fish processing community. The high school agreed to serve as a subcontractor with proceeds going to a building or library fund.

Rocheleau caused a stir when he refused to turn over recipes and market contacts to a local business. "We studied Japanese quality requirements and this Alaska company was not willing to do it the way we know it needs to be done," Rocheleau said. No one in town could recall a time when high school students dictated quality standards to adult business people. But bruised feelings have recovered, and students have identified a local business they think they can work with. In fact, the owner made the trip over to Japan during summer of 1991 with a new batch of students. Meanwhile, the high school has received a substantial order from a Korean fish importer.

The school-based business and its Japan focus is just one example of the changes at Mt. Edgecumbe. Since students and faculty started studying Japan in earnest, they have introduced the concepts and practices of total quality control, and quality or creative circles when managing the school, setting optimum tolerances for the brine solution used in fish smoking operations, evaluating teachers and students, and even writing English papers. Using the tools for statistical analysis and workplace social arrangements developed by Dr. Edwards Deming (Walton 1986), who introduced them to Japanese companies after World War II, Rocheleau and his students have surprised school and state administrators by presenting flow charts showing how much the state's bureaucracy adds to the cost of everything from soap for the dormitories to a new photocopy machine (Rhodes 1990). Said Rocheleau: "The total quality approach brings participatory management into the schools. Everybody has a say in what happens. For the most part, schools do not give what students need. So we're restructuring the whole system here from the school board on down. We're using Deming to encourage participation and creativity, to improve communication, to see the relationships across the curriculum, and to eliminate waste" (1990).

Deming is something of a cult figure in Japan, where a prize in his name is perceived as roughly equivalent in value to a Nobel Prize. Some educators in the U.S. are understandably skeptical that efforts to apply Deming to school management is at worst an attempt to further industrialize education and at best a fad, noting that even U.S. industry has never more than half-heartedly experimented with Deming's methods. A more balanced view based on a deeper reading of Deming's work, particularly his "points" or principles, suggests a leitmotif of western humanism. Indeed, Deming looks a bit like John Dewey of the shop floor (See Figure 1 and 2).

Figure 1

Continuous Improvement Process (CIP) Changes

- Students initiated a study sampling how others did their homework. They recorded how much time their classmates were actually doing homework and how much time they spent being distracted and wasting time. By studying their classmates, students became more attuned to their own work habits, and grades improved.

- Students decided changing classes seven times a day was a waste of learning time. Now they go to four 90-minute classes a day, allowing more time for projects and in-depth learning in each class.

- The reorganization of the classroom schedule allows for an additional three hours of staff development and preparation time per week.

- Each student receives a "Stats for Success" handbook. It is used to record homework and weekly plans, and to chart grades.

- The students set improvement goals such as receiving all A's, avoiding conduct reports, and reducing tardiness. The school staff, meanwhile, is aiming at better programs and rules for the students to follow.

- CIP has prompted teachers to rethink their teaching styles. One science teacher says he has changed from being an 80% lecturer to a 95% facilitator.

- In the CIP media class, students teach other students. There is no administrator or teacher in the room. It's just students on students. They learn charting techniques and imagineering, among other things.
- At the same time the media class is being held, teachers train other teachers, administrators, and staff members.
- Project learning is emphasized. Students write one long, high-quality report that receives grades for each subject, rather than writing many short, mediocre reports for each subject.
- Students are viewed as customers. As a result, management has provided better tools, such as computers, science equipment, tutors, and evening hours for the computer lab, library, and science facility.
- All staff members have been trained in flow charting. Flow charts of long-range projects are posted so that everyone can see how their part fits into the whole of each project.
- All students receive 90 minutes per week of quality improvement training and school-wide problem solving.

* from Mt. Edgecumbe High School

Figure 2

Modified Deming Points for Continuous Improvement of Education

1. Create constancy of purpose toward improvement of students and service. Aim to create the best quality students capable of improving all forms of processes and entering meaningful positions in society.
2. Adopt the new philosophy. Educational management must awaken to the challenge, must learn their responsibilities, and take on leadership for change.
3. Work to abolish grading and the harmful effects of rating people.
4. Cease dependence on testing to achieve quality. Eliminate the need for inspections on a mass basis (standardized achievement tests, minimum graduation exams, etc.) by providing learning experiences which create quality performance.
5. Work with the educational institutions from which students come. Minimize total cost of education by improving the relationship with student sources and helping to improve the quality of students coming into your system. A single source of students coming into a system such as jr. high students moving into a high school is an opportunity to build long term relationships of loyalty and trust for the benefit of students.

6. Improve constantly and forever the system of student improvement and service, to improve quality and productivity.
7. Institute education and training on the job for students, teachers, classified staff and administrators.
8. Institute leadership. The aim of supervision should be to help people use machines, gadgets, and materials to do a better job.
9. Drive out fear, so that everyone may work effectively for the school system. Create an environment which encourages people to speak freely.
10. Break down barriers between departments. People in teaching, special education, accounting, food services, administration, curriculum development and research, etc., must work as a team. Develop strategies for increasing the cooperation among groups and individual people.
11. Eliminate slogans, exhortations, and targets for teachers and students asking for perfect performance and new levels of productivity. Exhortations create adversarial relationships. The bulk of the causes of low quality and low productivity belong to the system and thus lie beyond the control of teachers and students.
12. Eliminate work standards (quotas) on teachers and students. (e.g., raise test scores by 10% and lower dropouts by 15%.) Substitute leadership.
13. Remove barriers that rob the students, teachers, and management (principals, superintendents, and central office support staff) of their right to pride and joy of workmanship. This means, inter alia, abolition of the annual or merit rating, and of management by objective. The responsibility of all educationl managers must be changed from quantity to quality.
14. Institute a vigorous program of education and self-improvement for everyone.
15. Put everybody in the school to work to accomplish the transformation. The transformation is everyone's job.

*from Mt. Edgecumbe High School

Rocheleau sees his high school in a broader context of U.S.-Japan and East-West relations, where the common denominator is excellence and quality: "We're in a quality race with the Japanese. I don't see it as adversarial as much as I do competitive, like two puppies with a towel. And what students learn here about how the Japanese do quality and how we do quality, and what the definition of quality will be in the future, will leave us all in better shape to thrive in the future" (1990).

What do the students think of all this? By most accounts, they love the travel to Japan, and even smoking the fish isn't too bad. But for students like Valerie Bobich, a Yupik Eskimo from St. Mary's on the Yukon River, the benefits are more intangible. "The program here has given me confidence in myself. Learning to speak Japanese has shown me that I can conduct business with them if I want. That they are real people about whom I now have a good understanding."

After college, Valerie wants to return to her village and start an enterprise dealing with international trade. Her plans are in a sense remarkable because a new social problem in rural Alaska is caused by young Native people who leave home and never come back.

What do students think of the Total Quality Control Approach? Students and school administrators seem to agree that the students are more enthusiastic than the faculty. According to one official, "The students are making it work."

Martin Luther King, Jr. Career Center. Two years ago Robin Zerbel wrote a grant to the state for money to start an international trade program in the Anchorage School District. The program was to be a new approach to vocational education, a melange of what have been "shop" courses and home economics classes. Zerbel saw vocational education as marginalized within formal secondary education, and morale was so bad among teachers that some refer to themselves as the "dirty fingernail discipline" (Zerbel 1991). Moreover, she saw students, many of whom had dropped out of regular academic programs, receiving instruction that would not prepare them for the realities of a changing world of work.

Zerbel received the funds and, with assistant principal Richard Kreiger, worked out a plan with the University of Alaska, Anchorage, to share facilities with an international business program. As a result, high school students have access to a small business library, the local world trade center which is affiliated with the university, and occasional visits from the business program's faculty. Students are recruited from high schools throughout the district and spend a half-day in the program for up to one full academic year. The program is geared for high school juniors and seniors, and accepts a full range of academic abilities from honor students to those in the district's vocational programs, some of whom have been identified as potential dropouts.

The framework of the program is an international trade market research business with a specialty in Japan. In addition to entrepreneurship and basic business skills, students learn international economics and the Japanese language. The program has 25 students in the morning session and the same in the afternoon. Three teachers are employed: two with business and economics backgrounds, and a Japanese language teacher with experience running a retail business that caters to overseas customers.

Students first identify a local business that may need their assistance. Once the business agrees to participate (there is now a waiting list), the market research phase begins. Teams are formed within the class to work on different aspects of the project such as client needs assessment, transportation, finance, and distribution channels in Japan. A boom in exports from Alaska to Japan (Barry 1990), and the identification of new options for cracking the Japanese market, provide the program with additional learning opportunities.

Zerbel and the other teachers have developed a list of outcomes and competencies which they say is still evolving. First is the development of group dynamics in the class. Zerbel has found that despite the emphasis U.S. culture puts on teamwork and team sports, whatever is learned by students in this regard does not carry over well to the business context. So there is emphasis on developing personal relationships among team members and creating systems to help team members accomplish tasks. Emphasis is placed on helping students discover how to disagree with a team member without totally alienating the other person or the group. This may be similar to part of Peter Senge's approach to team learning where dialogue can result in a "free exploration that brings to the surface the full depths of people's experience and thought, and yet can move beyond their individual views" (1990).

The second outcome is the ability to gather pertinent information. Zerbel says most students come ill-equipped to understand the importance of information in the business context much less the myriad of techniques needed to gather information. Teachers work with students to develop interviewing skills, and improve writing and speaking abilities. Related to this is the ability to link information from a variety of sources. This, according to Zerbel, requires a mix of divergent and convergent thinking skills where students gather information from many sources until a larger, more complex picture of the business environment emerges.

For example, gathering information on financial services available in Anchorage leads students to the conclusion that Alaska banks do not provide the same services as some Japanese banks, which leads to the further conclusion that Alaska has its own non-tariff barriers that small business must face. Students could see the connection between the capital requirements of a particular transaction and the larger issue of comparative structures for supporting small business in Alaska and Japan. What is interesting is that even though small business is part of American mythology and the object of much government cheerleading, in reality the Japanese government provides more assistance to small businesses than the U.S. government (Howard 1990).

Both Zerbel and Senge describe a need for different ways of thinking and acting. They emphasize collaborative problem solving and ways of thinking that are more circular than linear. In a sense, what they describe are practices long familiar to Asian cultures, especially Japan. Sheridan Tatsuno, in his book about Japanese creativity, calls for new ways of thinking about creativity that incorporate the strengths of east and west (1990).

The remaining competencies in the Anchorage program involve analyzing and presenting information. Students prepare written business plans, background reports, and memoranda as a means for synthesizing what they have learned. Knowledge of Japanese culture business practices further enriches this material. Finally, students make presentations to the client based on their research. Presenters are encouraged to incorporate computer graphics, overheads, and other audio-visual aids. Zerbel says studies show that a majority of business communication takes place verbally, so students should come out of the program with improved skills in this area. She was shocked at how poorly conventional speech and writing classes prepare students to participate in business communications.

For Zerbel and Kreiger, the key to the success of their program is the linkage with the local business community. The International Trade Program has an advisory board comprised of successful entrepreneurs as well as members of Alaska-based Japanese corporations. A third group represents the area's university community which the program has found of great value in developing the curricula and providing internships for students. Board members routinely appear in class as guest speakers, bringing what Zerbel calls "real world" experience. Students also make field trips to board member businesses and a new component next year will enlist students to study Alaska businesses that export to Japan and other countries. Students will look for exemplary business practices and as a result discover new practices that will further enhance the curricula.

Participating businesses acknowledge the potential problems of opening themselves up for this kind of scrutiny, but feel the benefits outweigh the costs. "These kids are the future of Alaska. We'd like to see excellent employees come out of this program and, as citizens, we'd like to see people who are ready to get off their duffs and get to work over there in Japan and Europe." (Robert Poe, Director, Office of International Trade, State of Alaska, Interview with Douglas Barry, 1991.)

Zerbel says that in the next year or so students and faculty will travel to Japan to experience firsthand what it is like to do business there. They would like to go tomorrow, but she says that developing the personal relations with local branches of Japanese companies and people at corporate headquarters can take 2-3 years. She is confident sponsors will be found. Meanwhile, students are encouraged to visit Japan on their own during summer vacations. Last year, students in her program won almost all the Rotary and Lions Clubs travel scholarships to Japan, and at least 6 other students from the program's first year have gone on their own as a result of what they have learned as business consultants.

Lessons Learned

No thorough evaluation of the programs profiled here has been conducted. So to what extent they have succeeded in meeting their objectives or teaching the espoused competencies is not known. However, it is possible to summarize briefly what the people involved with these programs—both in teaching, funding, and advising—say is happening there.

1) Emphasis on language and culture studies is getting beyond debates over "cultural literacy" and down to the more pragmatic concerns of providing students with tools that will serve them in a world that many argue is growing more interdependent. If, as authors like H.J. Hoffer suggest, businesses throughout the U.S. may one day require new hires to be at least bilingual, many of these students should be in good shape.

2) Studying Japan gives students the opportunity to go beyond stereotypes, myths, and superficialities to develop an analytical framework for understanding relations between superpowers and relations between their hometowns and Japanese hometowns. In Sitka the emphasis is on studying Japanese approaches to quality. As Larrae Rocheleau put it, "We teach our kids that there's a right way to do things and a less than perfect way to do things. More often than not the Japanese do things in a way that our kids should experience for themselves" (1990).

Now the students are giving adults in Sitka their comeuppance by introducing standards for quality that are not normally seen around those parts. But Rocheleau might also mention that the Japanese are not perfect. Indeed, Mazda Motor Corporation is in trouble with the Japanese government for not reporting faulty switches in one of its models (*Anchorage Daily News*, January 1, 1991). The government issued an order to recall the cars and warned the company to pay stricter attention to product safety. In Japanese fashion, Mazda's chairman and the managing directors announced they would take a pay cut because of the problem.

3) Through their associations with Japanese and local companies, these high school programs are receiving valuable information and knowledge. Some students have developed a sense of personal empowerment, such as the case of the student who wants to return to her village and start a business that will sell goods to the Japanese. In addition, funds have been received for classroom space, educational materials, and trips to Japan to observe things firsthand. Moreover, businesses get to contribute to education in a meaningful way. Resources are shared, problems can be addressed. High schools, businesses, and universities start to see themselves as part of a larger picture, a system that will profit from thinking that is holistic, as opposed to linear and compartmentalized. What is learned collaboratively stands a chance of getting fed forward into the curriculum, not just as writing or math across the curriculum, but as Rocheleau puts it, "Everything across the curriculum"(1990).

4) Schools like Mt. Edgecumbe are opening alternative routes into Japan. This school eschews sister school relations because teachers say they are not very interested in learning about Japanese education. As one teacher said, "America will not thrive again by copying the Japanese school system at any level." Students still enjoy homestays and other elements of the Japan travel itinerary that people in the past seemed to appreciate and learn from. But staples like homestays are thought to be qualitatively different when arranged by Japanese host companies. Also, it is the perception at Mt. Edgecumbe that Japanese companies are becoming more eager to foster—and pay for—these kinds of relationships, so perhaps the long waiting time described by Robin Zerbel will not be as lengthy in the future.

5) Both programs have created a positive vision involving personal creativity and innovation, quality of thought and work, the importance of a long term outlook for personal growth, knowledge of another culture, and ways of thinking that emphasize systems and "the bigger picture." National competitiveness does not appear to figure in the vision, but the fate of Alaska and individual communities does. Hence, both programs start from the assumption that learning about Japan and how to do business there is good because it will benefit the individual student, the community, and the state. Significantly, the vision emphasizes connectedness with things beyond narrow self-interests. Also, the scope and sweep of things considered helps deflect

criticism that the focus of the learning serves primarily narrow, instrumental ends.

6) Both programs have separated themselves from the traditional high school physical plant and the traditional curriculum. This is not to say that such arrangements are a prerequisite for interesting things to happen. Perhaps more importantly, both programs have created a form of what Senge calls microworlds, a microcosm of reality where it is safe to play. In the process, learners discover principles and develop skills that are relevant beyond play. Microworlds are places that bring together the vision of what learners want to create and reflections on the ways teams and groups work together, identifying and testing assumptions about business ideas or personal creativity. Microworlds are akin to the way children learn, without being taught, about spacial geometry and mechanics from playing with blocks. Clearly, facilitating learning in microworlds is a skill that takes time to develop. But embracing the concept and then learning by doing is the way to begin (Kourilsky 1983).

For Zerbel and the Anchorage program, all this leads logically to internships for students with local companies. Both large and small firms with experience or interest in international trade are now providing internship opportunities. Though it is too soon to tell, Zerbel feels that this kind of work experience, coupled with what happens in the classroom, develops in some students a desire for more learning and a sense that work can be a source of personal fulfillment. She laments that many young people seem to feel work is what you do when you are not seeking fulfillment (Zerbel pers. com. 1990).

Finally, observations involving both programs suggest students and teachers could profit from an exploration of western and Japanese forms of creativity.

Suggestions for Starting an International Entrepreneurship Program

First, develop a vision of what the international entrepreneurship program is to accomplish. Objectives of the program might include broadening students' intercultural sensitivity, improving their understanding of how global markets affect their community, understanding what is involved in running a small business with an international perspective, and establishing study opportunities in Japan.

Second, consider the extent to which the environment external to the high school is conducive to a new program or modification of an existing one to include an international focus. Not having a Japanese business in the area may appear to be a constraint, but the market research model employed by the Anchorage School District can function by working with local businesses that may have exportable products or services.

Third, consider the various institutional constraints facing the establishment of a new program. Constraints might include tight budgets, and competing and conflicting priorities. But what appear to be constraints may turn out to be the opposite. Since more than 40 states now have trade offices based in Japan and other countries, support for an international entrepreneurship project is likely to come from governors and state legislatures. The timing may be especially good now since many state trade programs are turning their attention from attracting Japanese investment to promoting their state's exports to Japan.

A key consideration is the formation of an advisory board consisting primarily of local businesses. Members should be selected based on a mix of skills and experiences that best fit the focus of the program. The Alaska programs have a mix of small, medium and large companies. Japanese-owned local companies are also represented. School administrators in Alaska have discovered that the international trade program advisory board members are an excellent resource for curriculum development, a good liaison with the business community in general, and a potent lobbying force with the school board and the state legislature.

It has also been important for the Alaska programs to include on the advisory boards members of university programs in, for example, international business, entrepreneurship, Japan studies, and intercultural communication. The university connection provides valuable assistance with curriculum and access to faculty expertise. In addition, improving communication between high school and college can lead to the creation of formal ties whereby the high school programs feed qualified students into the college programs. Students in the Alaska high school programs report that contact with university faculty directly affected their decision to apply to the university for admission.

Another consideration is the development of linkages with a Japanese company for the purpose of facilitating study travel opportunities in Japan. Building personal relations with representatives of Japanese businesses can take time and patience. But as students and faculty at Mt. Edgecumbe have learned, the rewards in the form of insights about Japanese culture and business practices can be great.

There are a number of possible strategies for developing relationships with Japanese companies. The most obvious is to contact Japanese firms in the immediate area. If no such companies exist, try companies located in the larger region. Japanese trading companies like Mitsui and Mitsubishi have offices in a number of large cities throughout the U.S. An emerging prospect is Keidanren, an organization representing many large Japanese companies. One of Keidanren's new priorities is to improve relations between Japanese firms and the U.S. communities where they have operations. Recently approved tax incentives encouraging Japanese corporate philanthropy improve the climate for funding educational endeavors like those described here.

If a primary objective is to get students to Japan for a program that includes how business is conducted, then other sources of funding exist, including grants from U.S. and Japanese foundations, and donations from businesses in the local community. For example, the applied economics teacher at Ketchikan High School in Alaska takes students interested in business to Japan every summer with help from the local chamber of commerce. Lions Club and Rotary Club scholarships provide alternative ways to get individual students to Japan. Alaska's experience shows that students from entrepreneurship programs do well in this competition.

There exists a tremendous amount of excellent materials and resources for programs in startup or advanced stages. Several are cited in the Select Bibliography.

This chapter began with an examination of U.S. and Japanese perceptions. Later a lament by a Boeing executive implied that our schools are responsible for producing adults who are more concerned with the size and shape of things than how things work. Entrepreneurial educators in Alaska and elsewhere are creating new programs that help students and teachers experiment with different microworlds as a means of stimulating curiosity, questioning, creativity, and learning by doing. In addition, these programs appear to help students develop their own entrepreneurial skills, acquire a global perspective, learn about small business in an international context, and gain an in-depth understanding of another culture, namely Japan. Students learn how to make and market products with the Japanese consumer in mind. Travel and internship opportunities are generated. Teachers and businesspeople are working together. Educators are experimenting with new models for managing schools, models adapted from Japanese and U.S. efforts to improve quality in the workplace.

Finally, a concern was raised that pressure on schools to improve may result in a curriculum that slavishly serves the narrow, short term interests of U.S. and Japanese business and industry. This is not a trivial issue. But educators can address the concern by exploring with their students the curricula as a human construct, containing the sometimes competing norms, values, assumptions, and ideologies of the larger society.

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10

Dwelling in the Experience of Others: Intercultural Collaboration In Action, Japanese Dimensions

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Intercultural education, as we use the term, has multiple meanings. It refers to programs that prepare participants to enter into productive exchanges with people in possession of culturally different habits and ways of knowing, being, and educating. With respect to the Japanese, it refers to programs that encourage learners to explore habits of heart and mind, and thus transcend stereotypes about Japanese culture, society, and education. Most important, perhaps, intercultural education programs call for reciprocity—equal exchanges of human and material resources, staged opportunities to learn more about culture, deepen intercultural communication, create programs collaboratively, and develop an intercultural vision for the future.

Intercultural Knowledge. Intercultural education refers to a content emphasis that privileges cultural knowledge and matters of perspective. It refers to programs that cultivate a particular state of mind—a suspension of cultural identity, a leave-taking of national, ethnic, religious habits, a willingness—for a moment in time—to dwell in the experience of others, to capture the world through new eyes.

An intercultural program invites learners to contemplate and participate in alternative visions of time, space, human relationships, educational processes, family dynamics, work place habits, and aesthetic forms. In the case of the Japanese, an intercultural program invites participants to read about Japanese habits of heart and mind, as they suffuse in daily life and in the cultures of the school. But it does more. It invites them to participate in programs that re-create Japanese cultural forms and processes.

An intercultural approach to teaching and learning about Japanese culture calls for the preparation of learning environments that relieve language of heavy emotional freight and substitute, as the Japanese do, environments rich in non-verbal forms of human connection and emotional experience. An intercultural approach to Japanese culture also calls for learning environments which cultivate group identity, stimulate interdependence, and as a public matter, elevate group needs above individual preferences, and human relationships over productivity. In short, a Japan-related intercultural program, like any other, invites participants to "read" another culture with intuition and logic, care and reason, with open minds and open hearts. Intercultural programs privilege respect for alternative perspectives, cultural experience, group encounters, face-to-face observations, and systematic attempts at cultural "de-coding."

What follows is a description of intercultural education in action—a discussion of community settings within which intercultural education programs have developed and intercultural leaders have emerged, and an elaboration of six stages in the preparation of intercultural education leaders and programs.

Intercultural Readiness in Communities. An essential first step is the identification of communities with sufficient political, economic, and educational motivation to sustain effective intercultural programs. The principles of intercultural education are demanding. Indeed, the commitment to reciprocity and mutuality requires communities, boards of education, teachers, parents, and students dedicated to the development of sufficient material and human resources to plan for the long term. Not every school and/or community is ready to do so. Indeed, the principles and practices of Japan-related/intercultural education programs outlined above, flourish in particular kinds of communities both in Japan and the United States. In the U.S., sophisticated, reciprocal intercultural collaboration requires a critical mass of teachers, educators, school administrators, and education policy-makers seeking to resolve interethnic, interracial, and/or international dilemmas. In some U.S. communities, educators turn to intercultural programs as a response to external political pressures: such as the ending of school desegregation, the addition of a multicultural dimension to the curriculum and extracurriculum, and/or the integration of immigrant children into the school community. In other communities, educators respond to economic pressures, adopting an array of intercultural education practices that link schools to economic growth and development. In the hope of attracting foreign business, they formulate the educational means to serve children of corporation executives, diplomatic families, and foreign laborers. In still other communities, the pressures for sophisticated intercultural education programs originate among educators themselves. In interculturally prepared communities, teachers aim to broaden the perspectives of their students, principals try to promote excellence and improve school achievement, curriculum supervisors seek ways to provide staff development opportunities and prevent teacher burnout, and school superintendents and boards of education seek status for their school systems, and a reduction in tensions among and between ethnic minorities.

On the Japanese side, commitments to internationalization are more likely to originate from international pressures than from interethnic or interracial problems within small communities or prefectures, although there are some exceptions. The theme of *kokusaika*, or "internationalization", reverberates all over Japan. In large cities like Tokyo, Osaka, and Kobe, where there are relatively large concentrations of children who have lived abroad, pressure to internationalize takes the form of pressure for humane policies for returning children. In more isolated and/or traditional areas, internationalization initiatives in education commonly take the form of teacher, student, and youth exchanges which sustain traditional Japanese commitments to group cohesion and face-to-face relations, and provide Japanese prefectures with native speakers of other languages, occasional lecturers, and some creative and interesting formal and informal exchanges among and between educators.

Intercultural Planning Teams. Since the motivation to initiate intercultural education programs differs from one community to another within the U.S. and Japan, and between Japan and the U.S., the vitality of intercultural education initiatives in the U.S. depends on the existence of teams of teachers, school administrators, education policy-makers, and community leaders with formidable intercultural skills. They must have sufficient knowledge to prepare Japanese studies programs that are meaningful and enriching for teachers and students. They must acquire sufficient knowledge of Japanese education, culture, and communication forms to identify mutualities of interest among and between Japanese and U.S. counterparts. They must identify networks of Japanese scholars, performers, educators, and/or citizens who can serve as resources, and prepare them to work in U.S. settings. They must amass sufficient human and material resources to enter into meaningful educational and/or scholarly exchanges.

This is a challenging agenda, but one that is furthered when the following planning conditions are present: teams of Japanese and U.S. program planners who have deep knowledge of Japanese and U.S. cultural habits and education policies and practices, and many kinds of cultural experience and language expertise. They must have an ability to communicate sensitively, have a precise understanding of needs and interests on both the Japanese and U.S. sides. They must be able to define a sharp and precise content focus, elaborated and reinforced through combinations of readings, observations, and visual and tactile experiences. They must also generate group processes which cultivate interdependence and bonding among and between members of the group, thus recreating patterns of the culture to be learned; they must possess dispositions to plan over the long term.

Intercultural Program Development. The preparation of leaders for intercultural collaboration proceeds through several identifiable stages beginning with the identification of teams who are willing and able to direct curriculum, staff development, and innovative pedagogical initiatives within school districts and communities. Every aspect in the development of intercultural education leaders—the criteria for participation, the choice of participants, the content and sequence of seminars, field study sites, reading materials, communication processes, the network of human associations, and the models which curriculum and staff development take—suffuses with intercultural principles. They function as occasions to nurture group consciousness and commitments, overwhelm traditional communication gaps among and between scholars, teachers, school administrators, and between Japanese and U.S. citizens, and energize and cultivate the creativity of educators. Program contents and processes also re-create Japanese cultural forms, and thus teach about Japan cognitively and experientially.

Stage 1: Forming a Group Identity

The Team Application Form. The application form itself begins the process. Unlike traditional continuing education seminars which call for individual applications, personal statements, and letters of recommendation, an intercultural one invites team applications, group statements, cost-sharing, and administrative and system support. The following language, from the 1990 team application for the Mid-Atlantic Region Japan-in-the-Schools (MARJiS) regional leader program summarizes the program goals, ". . .teams must demonstrate a commitment to serving as regional leaders and catalysts for the improvement of intercultural education within their districts, the state, and when possible, throughout the region."

Beyond inviting potential applicants to apply in teams, an intercultural education application also reflects the existence of a precise program focus, collaborative networks, and commitments to reciprocity.

Having constituted "mini-groups" through the application process itself, a second step involves the forging of a whole group identity. This is a particularly intriguing task with U.S. participants who typically introduce themselves by elaborating their individualities rather than revealing themselves, as the Japanese do, strictly in relation to institutional commitments and roles. This difference in communication habits forms a content emphasis for the next stage in the evolution of an intercultural education program.

Stage 2: The Preparation of an Educational Blueprint

During this phase of intercultural education teaching and learning, the teaching staff enters into a distinctive form of program planning in which they serve as "cultural go-betweens," integrating the goals and aspirations of each participant with those of Japanese counterparts, articulating program emphases, identifying appropriate informants, suggesting (delicately) the forms of communication that would best serve the goals of the seminar, trying, as best they can, to create a collective vision in which all participants, both U.S. and Japanese, can share.

Naming the Group. The first step is to name the group, seeking a label that reflects aspirations, identifies human networks and institutions, links participants in a common mission, signals professional needs and aspirations, and orients Japanese colleagues in a culturally sensitive manner. Participants might be called "MARJiS Regional Leaders," "Research Associates of the National Intercultural Education Leadership Institute," or members of "The Charles County Field Study Team." No matter what the label, it signals the existence of a distinct group.

Preparing a Group Profile. A logical next step is the preparation of a Group Profile, an educational blueprint, a planning document which guides the exertions of Japanese colleagues and links participants together. An effective group profile constitutes a collective voice. If it is sensitively developed, it embeds individual visions and agendas into a larger whole, invites individuals to see their professional aspirations and plans in relation to those of other people, forms a basis for refining a content focus, and creates an occasion for teaching and learning about Japan.

For first-time learners about Japan, the preparation of a group profile provides an opportunity for a deep interview, e.g., several hours of confidential conversation in which program participants reflect on their own goals, reveal hopes and dreams, ask questions, and otherwise help planners understand the precise nature of their intellectual and professional needs. For those who enter an intercultural education leadership program with knowledge of Japan and experience as leaders of precollegiate Japan-related instruction, the preparation of a group profile becomes a collaborative process, requiring participants to generate autobiographical statements that are sensitive to Japanese communication forms, and reveal professional and personal needs, requiring program planners to criticize, comment, and otherwise help participants "see" the Japanese point of view.

In each case, there are opportunities to sensitize participants to Japanese communication forms. For first-time learners, it takes the form of sharing correspondence with the Japanese. In the case of the more experienced, it requires learning and generating Japan-sensitive communication forms. In each case, an intercultural program invites participants: to appreciate the efforts that Japanese counterparts will have to make to meet the program needs of U.S. colleagues (thus apologies for burdens that we know we will be imposing); to recognize that Japanese planners develop program collaborations by exchanging information (thus requiring an abundance of factual information about the nature of our programs, the kinds of human and material resources that might be helpful, and even some personal information); to develop collaborative programs sincerely, one step at a time—with full knowledge that there are mutual obligations and responsibilities accompanying each stage of program development (thus the tendency to take small, concrete first steps, such as preparing a schedule for a colleague, arranging introductions, and exchanging materials, rather than talking about whole programs at once); to value the human, as well as programmatic capacities of a colleague (thus a willingness to engage in small talk, identify mutual interests, go out for dinner and drinking which, among Japanese are occasions for human bonding rather than direct program negotiations.)

For program planners, the deep interview and the autobiographical statement provide an invaluable information base from which to constitute the content of the seminars and field study in Japan.

Stage 3: The Preparation of an Intercultural Program Focus and Syllabus

At this stage, the planning team has three basic tasks: to prepare a statement of purpose with a sharp content focus; to prepare a tentative schedule; to solicit assistance from appropriate Japanese colleagues, and as a matter of intercultural teaching and learning, reflect the process with participants. Taken together, the statement of purpose, the group profile, and the correspondence, constitute a "mini intercultural text" from which participants can continue to learn and from which Japanese can plan.

The next step is to define a sharp content focus. It will, of course, vary according to the needs of specific groups. There are some programs, for example, that prepare leaders of Japan-related social studies instruction to engage in discussions of exchange programs and controversial issues with the Japanese, and link them to relatively invisible and/or inaccessible Japanese informants. In this sort of program, content focused on concepts of internationalization in education and on the treatment of World War II and of minority groups in schools. The program and schedule projected an array of formal and informal opportunities to explore internationalization at the national, prefectural, town, and school levels, and among and between U.S. and Japanese policy-makers, planners, scholars, teachers, students, local school officials, and representatives of different internationalization initiatives and political persuasions. In another kind of intercultural program prepared for first-time learners about Japan, the study of Japanese cultural habits involved an immersion of teams of teachers, school administrators and superintendents in carefully staged experiences in family, school, and workplace with matched counterparts. Yet another specialized program engaged literature, performing arts, studio arts, and media specialists in the study of Japanese theatrical forms—staging, acting, and performance. Through an array of direct associations with Japanese performers, scholars, teachers and observations of diverse theater forms, participants were able to integrate an intercultural dimension into the teaching of literature. Still another kind of intercultural program can engage scholars and teachers from minority cultures in the study of intercultural and international relations within Japan and the United States.

No matter which emphasis, each of the programs reflected the intellectual and cultural needs of participants on the U.S. side, and the intellectual strengths of Japanese colleagues, thus reinforcing the collaborative nature of the programs.

Sharing the Correspondence. Taken together, the Group Profile, Content Description, and Schedule function as a wish-list for the Japanese and a promissory note for U.S. participants. With this sort of "double-sided" planning, the "go-between" role of program planners intensifies as they solicit assistance from Japanese friends and colleagues, and reveal the process for Americans. Practically speaking, we share the Japanese correspondence with U.S. participants, and the detailed Group Profile and Statement of Purpose with the Japanese. This creates a new occasion to reflect on Japanese habits of heart and mind and to call attention to issues of status, verticality, etiquette, communication forms, etc.

Stage 4: The Nurture of an Intercultural Consciousness: Readings and Participant-Observation as Method and Process

Having acted as intercultural mediators for a time, the next preparatory step is to identify readings, methods of observation, and forms of communication which prepare participants to gather information effectively. The readings should reveal perspectives which participants will encounter in the field. A good selection will expose the moral assumptions of everyday life as they are expressed in relationships that participants will observe in Japan, e.g., between mothers and children; teachers and students; artists and apprentices; professors and university students; the old and the young. The readings should preview forms of classroom culture, education policies and the multiplicity of Japanese views of educational realities. Beyond the readings, some tutoring in the formulation of relevant questions and processes of participant observation have proved helpful. The following prescriptions, suggested by Professor Nobuo Shimahara (1991), are illustrative.

> 1. It is important that you develop an ability to see beyond the walls of your own ideological assumptions and world view. You must dislodge pre-

conceptions and confront taken-for-granted knowledge, so that you may see the need of the other.

2. Make the familiar strange. Taken-for-granted events that hitherto escaped notice might become objects of intense scrutiny. Bracket your own values and view the scene before you objectively, i.e., as though it were an object.

3. Prevent yourself from over-identifying with a particular group or point-of-view. Do not view things through a narrow looking-glass. Try to examine events from many perspectives.

4. Use yourself as a research instrument to reflect critically upon your own experience. By developing an ability to be creatively introspective, you can learn to formulate questions and hypotheses which will guide and deepen your observations.

Stage 5: The Nurture of Intercultural Human Experiences and Dialogues as Teaching and Learning Opportunities

The stage has been reached in an intercultural education program when learning face-to-face, rather than at long distance, begins. At this stage, participants have opportunities to apply what they have already learned, begin to learn from one another and from the Japanese and, through such means, deepen their capacity to form personal networks for future collaboration in both countries. A two- to four-day cultural immersion prepares participants to formulate group norms and preview what they will be learning in Japan. In the case of first-time learners, a successful orientation will help them understand, observe, and study cultural habits that have mystified unprepared travelers and sojourners for centuries. Through a process of cultural immersion and debriefing—the sharing of an identical meal, the practice of greeting, eating, and meeting Japanese style, of entering Japanese homes and schools, of asking questions in a non-confrontational manner—participants become aware of Japanese concepts of closeness and distance, harmony and interdependence, in-group bonding and out-group exclusion. They learn to observe with newly tutored eyes.

By means of mini-lectures and informal dialogues with well-prepared Japanese colleagues who have a good working knowledge of U.S. cultural habits and educational practices, U.S. participants can practice intercultural questioning and answering. For their part, the Japanese orientation staff needs to be skilled in articulating Japanese habits of heart and mind. The content and style of presentation evokes in U.S. participants a disposition to be become passively active—listening attentively, searching for common ground, avoiding conflict, suspending judgment about unfamiliar rituals, seeking ways to form connections—all the while seeking context clues that can help U.S. participants penetrate through surface appearance and differences in ways of doing and being.

For more advanced learners, the orientations plunge them immediately into reflective dialogues with Japanese nationals, and discussions of information-gathering in naturalistic settings. Here, it is essential that U.S. participants have studied well beforehand. In both cases, an intercultural orientation presents participants with opportunities to review what they have already learned, hone their ability to observe, suspend judgment, learn from discomfort and strangeness, enjoy the close attention of Japanese informants, and otherwise prepare for a more complete intercultural immersion in Japan.

On-the-Ground in Japan: the Schedule. An intercultural educational experience in Japan engages both Japanese and U.S. participants in an array of human encounters, cultural experiences, and school observations that go beyond the formal presentation of information, observation of classes and schools, one night homestays, and/or short visits and conversations in temples, shrines, theaters, dojos (a site for specialized training and competition), etc. An intercultural experience links Japanese and U.S. participants in a carefully staged sequence of programs and experiences which encourage the exchange of information and informal sociability, and allow both to get to know one another well. The following five-day immersion mini-program illustrates a single segment in a larger awareness-level seminar which, through gradual stages of deeper and deeper immersion, closely links U.S. citizens and Japanese matched counterparts. At this point, U.S. participants have already lived in a ryokan (Japanese style inn), observed and discussed Japanese education purposes and practices, and eaten informally with counterparts in Japan. They are ready to enter individually into the lives of a Japanese counterpart, e.g., a third-grade teacher, a high school principal, a prefectural superintendent, a college professor, living in their homes, joining in their domestic, professional, personal, day and night lives, experiencing the life of a professional as lived by a Japanese, and, in the end, enjoying a sayonara enkai (goodbye party, Japanese style) in an onsen (spa). Thus immersed, they can observe the culture of Japanese families, schools, leisure life, and family forms. They can study intergenerational relationships, the roles of men and women, the links between families and schools, the ties between teachers and students, school administrators and teachers, and prefectural superintendents and local school sites. As they compare their experiences with one another, they will discover a diversity of family forms, points of view, and responses to educational realities, thus seeing a more complex Japan than is typically available, or discoverable to western eyes. When this experience is repeated with counterparts among minorities, U.S. participants can dismantle the reigning stereotype about Japanese culture: that it is a homogeneous nation with uniform values.

Another kind of program segment engages Japanese and U.S. counterparts in shared tasks: e.g., minority group members exploring mobility and reform together; Japanese and U.S. textbook writers evaluating the content of textbooks; Japanese and U.S. scholars comparing the history of education and education reform in the two nations; and preparing materials to study together, exchanging points of view, sustaining collaborative projects. This kind of "group matching" calls on sophisticated forms of "cultural go-betweening," since planners on both sides must pre-stage the occasions. They must help participants prepare materials to study together, provide bilingual interpreters as necessary, act as cultural interlocutors, and otherwise prepare a foundation for collaboration. In this way, these more specialized programs serve as occasions for deep intercultural teaching and learning.

More importantly, Group Counterpart programs, like Individual ones, will have built a human foundation for further collaboration. Thus prepared, participants can begin to model, re-create, and prepare sophisticated, culturally sensitive, and appropriately critical perspectives when they return to the United States.

Stage 6: The Preparation of Intercultural Programs in School and Community

At this stage, U.S. participants have acquired a foundation of knowledge about Japanese culture and education, acquired artifacts, generated slide and video materials, made human connections, reflected on Japanese and U.S. perspectives, and otherwise absorbed sufficient experience to integrate Japanese studies in unusual and sophisticated ways.

Indeed, this kind of intercultural education program seems to inspire programs of extraordinary creativity and intellectual depth. One team transformed their experience into a fifteen year staff development program, re-creating a Japan-related intercultural program model with new generations of teachers, integrating Japanese nationals as curriculum resources, entering into exchange programs, evaluating the success of the programs by systematically studying the effects of the program on both sides of the Pacific Ocean. Through these means, they are transforming a once ethnocentric school system into one that is fast becoming a national model of multicultural educational development. Another team acquired sufficient wherewithal to build a critical mass of interculturally sensitive educational leaders who are transforming their knowledge of Japanese education and culture into new opportunities for intergroup understanding and sophisticated language programs in their community. Still others have joined together to create model cultural and language immersions which transform Japanese studies into occasions to create programs bringing together African-American, Asian-American, and Caucasian-American students to study a culture where harmony among face-to-face groups is a high priority. Yet others, in communities where there are heavy concentrations of Japanese nationals, have transformed their intercultural education experiences into occasions to help the two communities become better acquainted, thus transforming educators into important intercultural go-betweens. One group of educators learned their lessons so well that they were able to integrate a non-English-speaking classical Japanese dance master into school programs across the curriculum. An array of intercultural educators are integrating intercultural principles into orientation programs for U.S. nationals planning to teach in Japan. Although they are short, of only one or two days duration, sophisticated intercultural orientation programs can provide participants with a sensitive array of reading materials and small occasions to begin to "read a culture," "decipher a meal," anticipate verticalities, gender roles, and otherwise learn to "see the invisible," and preview what they will be experiencing in Japan.

The principles of intercultural education also work in reverse as Japanese nationals come to study, work, observe, and learn in U.S. culture. When this occurs, intercultural program planners must once again take the intercultural go-between role, identifying useful materials for the Japanese to study, preparing sensitive bi-cultural and bilingual mini-immersion programs, preparing U.S. families to understand why Japanese nationals are sometimes confused by choices, frightened by direct language, and altogether unfamiliar with the forms that harmony takes in the United States. As intercultural educators, they can help U.S. students and teachers learn that the kinds of dialogue and intellectual disagreement that are so common in U.S.

classrooms and communities, are shocking to the Japanese. At the same time, they can help the Japanese understand that harmony among U.S. citizens requires respect for diversity of opinion.

For intercultural educators in search of more meaningful educational forms and processes, Edward Hall's dictum, that knowledge and communication not only reflect culture, but re-create, re-build, re-constitute, and transform it as well, can be adapted. Through intercultural collaboration in education, an effusion of human connections, which might enrich rather than destroy the world we all must share, can begin.

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The Monbusho Young Teachers Program conducted jointly by the Virginia State Department of Education, MARJiS, the U.S. Department of Education, and the Monbusho. Contact: Beverly Thurston, Supervisor for International Education in the Social Studies, State Department of Education, P.O. Box 6-Q, Richmond, Virginia 23216.

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The preparation of a sophisticated syllabus requires the help of very sophisticated and experienced scholars of Japan. In the case of MARJiS, we had the help of Nobuo Shimahara, Rutgers University, and Joseph J. Tobin, University of Hawaii. Professor Shimahara joined our team once again in connection with NIELI. For information or an application form for the National Intercultural Education Leadership Institute, contact Dr. Barbara Finkelstein, Director, or Lisa Okada, Associate Director, Room 3113, Benjamin Building, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742. Performing arts programs engaging Hanayagi Shifu and Tokiwazu Sanzo as instructional models in schools throughout the states of Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, and the District of Columbia, and with the Kennedy Center for the Performing Arts have been conducted by MARJiS. Information can be acquired from the Mid-Atlantic Region Japan-in-the-Schools Program at the University of Maryland, College Park. The integration of Japanese volunteers within community schools constitutes yet another form of intercultural collaboration.

For a program with a literature, performing arts, and media center focus, see brochures and application forms for a comparative drama program entitled "Theatre East and West", which can be acquired at MARJiS offices or at the Center for Renaissance and Baroque Studies, The University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742-7325. For Theatre East and West, we were fortunate to have the help of Professor Thomas Rimer, now of the University of Pittsburgh.

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Richard Rice and Lucien Ellington

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This bibliography is intended for those educators who are not specialists in either Japan or exchange programs. Both scholars and those involved with teacher outreach on Japan and exchange programs may find gaps here. Rather than attempt a comprehensive view, our selections are meant to be representative. Many works of merit have no doubt been left out, but enough are included, it is hoped, to lead the interested reader to the full range of books and curriculum materials available. The field, as they say, is a moving target, with new and exciting resources appearing each year. The list of books for content reading has been selected for both accuracy and readability, the latter all too uncommon in academic works. For that reason and also lack of space, many significant books are not included, but the bibliographies in the works that are listed will give the diligent reader guidelines for further reading. Most of the titles are available in relatively inexpensive paperback editions, and most were in print at the time of compilation. Both the *Journal of Asian Studies* and the *Journal of Japanese Studies* contain scholarly book reviews of the most recent literature on Japan.

The items followed by an ED number are in the ERIC database. They are available in microfiche and paper copies from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). For information about prices, contact EDRS, 7420 Fullerton Road, Suite 110, Springfield, Virginia 22153-2852; telephone numbers are (703) 440-1400 or (800) 443-3742. Entries followed by an EJ number are annotated monthly in *Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE)* and are not available through EDRS. However, they can be located in the journal section of most libraries by using the bibliographic information provided.

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This 39 minute film, in which techniques of teaching about other cultures using Japan as an example is the major theme, is available for loan from the East Asian Studies Resource and Education Program of Yale University. East Asian Studies, Yale University, Box 13 A, Yale Station, New Haven, CT 06520.

Walstad, William and Patricia Weiss. "The Views of United States and Japanese High School Students on Current Issues: Results from a Cross-Cultural Survey" and "Survey of Issues for the U.S. and Japan: U.S. and Japanese Preservice Teachers." Unpublished manuscripts, 1991.

These surveys, conducted in the spring of 1990 covered a range of issues that were likely to be of some concern in the United States and Japan. For information contact: Mid-America Japan in the Schools Program (MAJIS), University of Kansas, 202 Bailey Hall, Lawrence, KS 66045.

Wilson, Angene. "Cross-Cultural Experiential Learning for Teachers." *Theory Into Practice* 21 (Summer 1982): 184-192. EJ 269 222.

In this overview of situations in which teachers have experienced personal growth from intercultural programs, the author stresses the importance of the component of reflection in the intercultural process. The article is part of a special global education issue of the journal.

Wojtan, Linda S. "Advice From an Expert: So You Want to Have A Workshop on Japan?" *FORUM-Newsletter of the United States-Japan Foundation* 1 (Spring 1986).

This is a superb piece for the educator who is planning a teacher workshop on Japan.

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND ENHANCEMENT

Asia Society. "Video Letters from Japan," 1982.

This series of twelve videos, designed for middle school students, introduces youngsters to Japan through the eyes of Japanese sixth graders. The series has been so popular there is now a secondary school level series which is also available through the Asia Society.

Association for Japanese Language Teaching. *Japanese for Busy People*. Tokyo: Kodansha International, 1986.

This is a useful book-cassette series for those educators who might wish to learn some beginning conversational Japanese. It is also possible to learn hiragana and katakana with this publication.

Bullard, Betty. "Asia." *Social Education* 50 (September 1986): 367-375. EJ 339 487.

This is a very well-done analysis of secondary school social studies textbook treatment of Asia.

Center for Improvement of Teaching of Japanese Language and Culture in High School.

This center has evolved into a kind of clearinghouse and network hub for teachers of the Japanese language at the K-12 level. It has a useful newsletter entitled "Newsletter of the Japanese Language Teachers Network," and has produced *Resources for Teachers of High School Japanese* (March 1991.) For subscription and other information contact: Carol Bond, Director, Center for Improvement of Teaching of Japanese Language and Culture in High School, University High School, 1212 West Springfield Avenue, Urbana, IL 61801; Tel. (217) 244-4808.

Czarra, Fred. *The Japan Database*. Washington, D.C.: Council of Chief State School Officers, 1986.

This is a practical guide for teachers listing resource organizations, people, and materials relating to teaching about Japan.

Ellington, Lucien. *Japan: Tradition and Change*. New York: Longman, 1990.

This textbook, written at an adult reading level, contains both content and pedagogy on Japan.

Ellington, Lucien, Jack Morgan, Richard Rice, and Tony Suglia. *The Japanese Economy: Teaching Strategies*. New York: Joint Council on Economic Education, 1990.

This curriculum guide for secondary-level teachers contains over 20 activities for students, an overview of the Japanese economy, and an annotated bibliography.

Haley, Frances, ed. *Social Studies Curriculum Planning Resources*. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies/Kendall-Hunt Publishing, 1990.

The most current collection of resources in one book for social studies professionals to use in planning, evaluating, and revising the social studies program.

Heinz, Elgin, ed. *Stepping Stones: Teaching About Japan in the Elementary Grades*. San Francisco, California: The U.S.-Japan Education Group, 1988. ED 329 487.

This exemplary set of lessons is written by elementary teachers who visited Japan and edited by one of the outstanding Asian outreach specialists in the country.

International Trade Curriculum.

The departments of education of Alaska, Oregon, and Washington have published an international trade competency-based curriculum. The publication includes sections on import and export basics, international economics, laws and regulations, and communications. For copies write: The Alaska Department of Education, Office of Adult and Vocational Education, P.O. Box F, Juneau, AK 99811.

The Japan External Trade Organization (JETRO).
This Japanese government agency exists to connect foreign sellers with Japanese buyers. In this regard, JETRO maintains a computer database to speed match-making, conducts marketing seminars, and publishes materials on how to do business in Japan. JETRO has offices in New York, Chicago, Atlanta, Los Angeles, San Francisco and Denver. Write the main office at: 2-5, Toranomon. Minato-ku, Tokyo, 105, Japan.

Japanese Studies in the United States. New York: The Japan Foundation, 1989.
This two volume directory includes names and addresses of both Japan specialists and Japan-related programs at universities and colleges throughout the U.S. and Canada.

Japanese I and II Telecommunications Course. For information about this project of the Nebraska Department of Education and the Nebraska Educational Telecommunication Consortium contact: Elizabeth Hoffman, the NDE Technology Center, 301 Centennial Mall South, Box 94987, Lincoln, NE 68509.

Johnson, Jacquelyn and Lynn Parisi. *Japan in the Classroom: Elementary and Secondary Activities.* Boulder, Colorado: Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 1987. ED 291 668.
These activities were written by teachers and curriculum developers who have experience in Japan. The lessons are interesting and quite practical.

Johnson, Jerry, Lucien Ellington, and Richard Rice. "Understanding the Japanese Economy." (Video) University of Wisconsin, Eau Claire Center for Economic Education, Eau Claire, WI 54702-4004.
This 30 minute educational video on the Japanese economy is specifically designed for high school students and is accompanied by an instructor's guide.

Joint Council on Economic Education, 432 Park Avenue South, New York, NY 10016; Tel. (212) 213-2872.
This independent, non-profit educational organization was incorporated in 1949 to encourage, improve, and coordinate the economic education movement. JCEE, in addition to maintaining a network of 50 affiliated state councils and about 273 centers for economic education located at colleges and universities nationwide, publishes economic education and social studies curriculum for elementary and secondary schools. A number of center directors and some of the council publications focus on Japan.

Keidanren.
Keidanren (Japan Federation of Economic Organizations) functions

somewhat like the U.S. Chamber of Commerce. Of importance to entrepreneurial educators is the Council for Better Corporate Citizenship, a new subsidiary of Keidanren, whose members are calling for greater involvement by member companies in U.S. communities where they have business interests. The Council made its first cash donations in early 1991. In addition to the Council, another subsidiary of Keidanren is the Keizai Koho Center (Japan Institute for Social and Economic Affairs), which publishes an annual report on comparative economic data on Japan, Western Europe, and the U.S. For information write: Keizai Koho Center, Otemachi Building, 6-1, Otemachi 1-chome, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 100, Japan.

Martin, Roberta, Elizabeth P. Tsunoda, and Amy Heinrich, eds. *Contemporary Japan: a Teaching Workbook*. 3rd ed., New York: East Asian Curriculum Project, 1988.

This curriculum guide for secondary teachers is indispensable in planning for teaching about Japan.

Religion in Japan and a Look at Cultural Transmission. Stanford, California: Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education (SPICE), 1990.

The development of this multi-media curriculum unit is examined in the chapter on curriculum development. The unit explores the theme of cultural transmission through the study of the religions of Shinto and Buddhism in Japan.

Rosengren, Frank, Marylee Wiley, and David Wiley, eds. *Internationalizing Your School*. Washington, D.C.: National Council on Foreign Language and International Studies, 1983.

This useful handbook for teachers, other educators, and parents, both articulates a vision of precollegiate international education and provides interested people with sound logistical suggestions and model school programs.

Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education (SPICE), Littlefield Center, Room 14, 300 Lasuen Street, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305-5013; Tel. (415) 723-1116.

Formed in 1976, SPICE has produced over 70 supplementary curriculum units for use in K-12 classrooms. Over a dozen of these units focus on Japan. A free catalogue is available.

Wilson, Donald C., David L. Grossman, and Kerry J. Kennedy, eds. *Asia and the Pacific: Issues of Educational Policy, Curriculum and Practice*. Calgary, Canada: Detselig Enterprises Limited, 1990.

In this volume writers from around the Pacific provide educators with new perspectives and innovative directions for education.

Wojtan, Linda S. *Resources for Teaching about Japan*. Bloomington, Indiana: National Clearinghouse for U.S.-Japan Studies and ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1992. In Press. ED number to be assigned.

EDUCATIONAL EXCHANGES WITH JAPAN: ORGANIZATIONS

AFS International/Intercultural Programs
313 East 43rd Street
New York, NY 10017
(212) 661-4550

One of the oldest and best-run youth exchange programs which sends high school students to many countries, including Japan.

American Intercultural Student Exchange (AISE)
7728 Herscgel Avenue
La Jolla, CA 92037
(619) 459-9761, FAX (619) 459-5301

The program places Japanese students with host families and high schools for one-year stays.

Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE)
205 East 42nd Street
New York, NY 10017
(212) 661-1414; ext. 1234 for School Partners Abroad Program

This organization has many programs for teachers and students who are interested in carrying out exchanges with Japan. Their School Partners Abroad Program matches U.S. junior and senior high schools with counterparts in Japan for annual reciprocal exchange of students and teachers. They also have many low-cost international flights and other programs to save students and educators money. Their 72-page *Student Travel Catalog* is updated each year and is full of useful information for teachers and faculty interested in Japan, even though the focus is on Europe. This organization has probably the widest range of resources and services to offer the teacher.

Educational Foundation for Foreign Study
1 Memorial Drive
Cambridge, MA 02142
(800) 447-4273

This group brings Japanese high school students to the U.S. for ten months. Contact Mary Clarke for further program information.

Embassy of Japan
2520 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20008
(202) 939-6700

The Embassy can provide addresses and telephone numbers of the Consulates serving your region: Boston, New York, Atlanta, New Orleans, Chicago, Kansas City, Houston, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Portland, Seattle, Anchorage, Honolulu, and Guam. Consulates can provide educators in their region with printed and audio-visual materials about Japan.

The Experiment in International Living
Youth Exchange Initiative
Brattleboro, VT 05301
(802) 257-7751

This organization has a summer program in Japan that involves language training, a three-week homestay, and cultural excursions for high school students, for about $4,000 from the west coast. In addition, they offer a Japanese Language Institute each summer in the U.S. with scholarships available.

Institute of International Education (IIE)
809 United Nations Plaza
New York, NY 10017
(212) 883-8200

Information on study abroad; locates qualified U.S. educators and specialists for education-related assignments.

International Christian Youth Exchange (ICYE)
134 West 26th Street
New York, NY 10001
(212) 206-7307

This organization arranges orientation and host-family stays for a year in Japan. Students can attend a Japanese high school for a year or half year, and are expected to do some volunteer work while in Japan. The entire program, including air fare, is about $5,000 for the year. Members of all denominations and non-Christians are eligible.

International Hospitality and Conference Service Association (IHCSA)
Annex-Ministry of Foreign Affairs
2-1, 2-Chome
Kasumigaseki
Chiyoda-ku
Tokyo 100, Japan
Tel. (03) 3580-1621/3350-3311; ext. 2297-9, 3084, 3086.

This organization has helped members of the National Precollegiate Japan Projects Network arrange summer study tours.

National Association for Foreign Student Affairs
1860 19th Street, NW
Washington, D.C. 20009
(202) 462-8811

Professional organization of institutions and individuals concerned with international educational exchange.

National Council for the Social Studies
3501 Newark St., NW
Washington, D.C. 20016
(202) 966-7840

Two all-expenses paid study tours for teachers, school administrators and supervisors, and university professors of education are available each year. They are excellent opportunities to learn about Japan first-hand. One is sponsored by the Keizai Koho Center and the other by the Japan Foundation. For information on either one contact: Coordinator, Japan Foundation/Keizai Koho Center Fellowship Program, 4332 Fern Valley Road, Medford, OR 97504; Tel: (503) 535-4882.

Programs for Academic and Cultural Exchange (PACE)
1-10-5-D Sangenjaya
Setagaya-ku
Tokyo 154 Japan
Tel. (03)3487-8012. Fax. (03)3487-8300.

This small private firm provides personalized services for different types of exchanges, including summer study tours to Japan for educators.

Youth for Understanding (YFU)
3501 Newark Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20016
(800) TEEN-AGE (833-6243)

They have several programs for Japan-U.S. youth exchange. One hundred high school students (two from each state) are sent to Japan for two months in the summer under the U.S.-Japan Senate Scholarship Program.

EXCHANGES WITH JAPAN: RESOURCES

Durston, Diane. *Old Kyoto: A Guide to Traditional Shops, Restaurants, and Inns.* Tokyo: Kodansha International, 1986.

Readings on Kyoto's history, artistic traditions, cuisine, and architecture, followed by guides and maps of distinctive neighborhoods within the city.

Finkelstein, Barbara, Joseph J. Tobin, and Anne E. Imamura, eds. *Transcending Stereotypes: Discovering Japanese Culture and Education.*

Yarmouth, Maine: Intercultural Press, 1991.

Some parts are suitable for pre-trip orientation. See "Background Reading" for full description.

"Intercultural Contact: The Japanese in Rutherford County Tennessee" (Video). Yarmouth, Maine: Intercultural Press, 1986.

This 30 minute documentary comes with a study guide. A few statistics are dated, but it still shows the problems faced by Japanese and also the community when a Japanese company opens a plant. The video discusses mutual images and adjustments needed when Japanese live in U.S. communities.

Japan Travel Bureau. *A Look Into Japan*. 1989.

A useful pocket guide to things Japanese, designed for the first-time traveler. It describes and illustrates everything from traditional cultural items to accommodations. JAL (Japan Air Lines) offices may have copies or similar materials.

Japan Travel Bureau. *Living Japanese Style*. 1984.

Another JTB pocket guide for foreigners. It has concise survival information and illustrations of subjects as diverse as using the Japanese bath and exchanging greetings.

Mosher, Gouverneur. *Kyoto: A Contemplative Guide*. Tokyo: Charles E. Tuttle Co., 1964.

Cultural histories, maps, and guides for over 20 of Kyoto's most notable temples, shrines, and palaces.

Parisi, Lynn, ed. *A Look at Japanese Culture Through the Family*. Boulder, Colorado: Social Science Education Consortium, 1988.

This curriculum explores the Japanese family through a series of case studies based upon the homestay experiences of U.S. educators. In addition to classroom use, the unit is useful for Japan study-tour orientation.

Schumacher, Shirley Davis. *City-to-City/School-to-School: A Handbook of Guidelines for Establishing and Maintaining Sister City/Sister School Relationships*. Ann Arbor, MI: Ann Arbor Public Schools, 1991. Order from Shirley Davis Schumacher, Clague School, 2616 Nixon Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48105; Tel. (313) 994-1982.

A real step-by-step handbook for those who are not sure where to begin.

State International Trade Offices.

Many states operate international trade offices in Japan. These offices often are the source of specialized information about market receptivity unique to the products of the particular state. Alaska's office, for example, specializes in forest products and seafood. Many of the state offices with branches in Japan publish useful materials and have access to specialized Japanese government and industry publications in English. The state offices are normally associated with the state's department of commerce or the governor's office.

U.S. Department of Commerce, U.S. and Foreign Commercial Service International Trade Administration.

This federal office maintains specialists in U.S. embassies and consulates throughout the world. In addition, trade specialists are located in many large cities around the U.S. These specialists have small libraries and access to a wide range of publications specific to countries, markets, and products. They also have videos and other materials. For an address of the nearest trade specialist write: U.S. Department of Commerce, 1615 H St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20026.

Wilson, Angene. "Cross-Cultural Experiential Learning for Teachers," *Theory into Practice* 21 (Summer 1982): 184-192. ED 269 222.

See listing in "Professional Development" section.

Wojtan, Linda S. *Introduction to Japan: A Workbook.* Washington, D.C.: Youth for Understanding, 1986.

This is a very readable workbook intended for U.S. high school students who plan to take part in an exchange with Japan. It has readings and activities on history and geography, society and religion, trade and defense, and cross-cultural challenges students are likely to face.

NATIONAL PRECOLLEGIATE JAPAN PROJECTS NETWORK MEMBERS

Alaska-Japan Studies Project: Douglas Barry, Director; University of Alaska, Alaska Center for International Business, 4201 Tudor Center Drive, Suite 120, Anchorage, AK 99508; Tel. (907) 561-2322, FAX (907) 561-1541.

Consortium for Teaching Asia and the Pacific in the Schools (CTAPS): David Grossman, Project Leader; East-West Center, 1777 East-West Road, Honolulu, HI 96848; Tel. (808) 944-7768, FAX (808) 944-7670.

Great Lakes Japan-in-the-Schools Project: John J. Cogan, Director; University of Minnesota-Twin Cities, Global Education Center, College of Education-Peik Hall #152A, 159 Pillsbury Drive S.E., Minneapolis, MN 55455; Tel. (612) 625 1896, FAX (612) 626-7496.

Japan Project/Stanford Program on International and Cross-Cultural Education (SPICE): Gary Mukai, Coordinator; Littlefield Center, Room 14, 300 Lasuen Street, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305-5013; Tel. (415) 723-1116, FAX (415) 723-2592.

Mid-America Japan in the Schools Program (MAJIS): Patricia Weiss, Director; University of Kansas, 202 Bailey Hall, Lawrence, KS 66045; Tel. (913) 864-4435, FAX (913) 864-3566.

Mid-Atlantic Region Japan-in-the-Schools Program (MARJiS): Barbara Finkelstein, Director; Benjamin Building, Room 3104, University of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742; Tel. (301) 405-7350, FAX (301) 405-4773.

Midsouth Japan-in-the-Schools Program: Barbara Stanford or Walter Nunn; Arkansas International Center, University of Arkansas at Little Rock, 2801 South University, Little Rock, AR 72204; Tel. (501) 569-3282 or Lucien Ellington or Richard Rice, Japan Project, University of Tennessee at Chattanooga, 615 McCallie Avenue, Chattanooga, TN 37403; Tel. (615) 755-4292.

National Clearinghouse for U.S.-Japan Studies: C. Frederick Risinger, Director; Social Studies Development Center, Indiana University, 2805 E. 10th Street, Suite 120, Bloomington, IN 47408; Tel. (812) 855-3838, FAX (812) 855-7901.

New England Program for Teaching About Japan: Kathleen Woods Masalski, Program Director; Five College Center for East Asian Studies, 8 College Lane, Smith College, Northampton, MA 01063; Tel. (413) 585-3751, FAX (413) 585-2075.

Northeast Regional Program on Japan: Roberta Martin, Director; East Asian Institute, Columbia University, International Affairs Building, 420 West 118th Street, New York, NY 10027; Tel. (212) 854-4278, FAX (212) 749-1497.

Project on International Agriculture: Diane Crow, Student Services Specialist; International Programs, P.O. Box 15160, 5632 Mt. Vernon Memorial Highway, Alexandria, VA 22309-0160; Tel. (703) 360-3600, FAX (703) 360-5524.

Rocky Mountain Region Japan Project: Lynn Parisi, Director; Social Science Education Consortium, 3300 Mitchell Lane, Suite 240, Boulder, CO 80301-2272; Tel. (303) 492-8154, FAX (303) 449-3925.

Southeast Program for Teaching about Japan: Donald Spence, Director; School of Education, East Carolina University, Greenville, NC 27858-4353; Tel. (919) 757-4247, FAX (919) 757-4813.

Southwest Program for Teaching about Japan: Duane Christian, Director; The Center for Excellence in Education, Texas Tech University, P.O. Box 4560, Lubbock, TX 79409; Tel. (806) 742-2356.

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